Saudi Female Journalists' Perspectives: The Influence of Gender-Related Work Problems, Support, and Intergroup Contact on Work-Related Outcomes and Attitudes toward Saudi Men

By



Ahmed Muyidi

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Chairperson: Dr. Yan Bing Zhang

Dr. Angela Gist-Mackey

Dr. Adrianne Kunkel

Dr. Beth Innocenti

Dr. Bruce Frey

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The Dissertation Committee for Ahmed Muyidi certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

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Dr. Yan Bing Zhang, Chairperson

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## Abstract

From the perspectives of Saudi female journalists ($N = 207$), the current online survey examined the predictive association between work related problems (i.e., gender discrimination and sexual harassment), social and government support, and work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction), and affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men. In addition, guided by intergroup contact theory (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew, 1998), the current online survey tested the direct and indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of female Saudi journalists' report of communication quantity and quality with male coworkers on their attitudes toward Saudi men in general.

Supporting the hypotheses of this study, hierarchical regression analyses results revealed gender discrimination and sexual harassment were significant positive predictors of job stress and intention to leave the job, but were negative predictors of affective and cognitive attitudes toward men. In addition, perceived government support was a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction as well as affective and cognitive attitudes toward Saudi men in general. Furthermore, results demonstrated received social support was a positive predictor of affective attitudes toward men. Regarding intergroup contact and attitudes, mediation analysis indicated that both communication quantity and quality had a significant positive indirect effect through intergroup anxiety on the attitudinal measures. Results also revealed a significant direct effect of communication quality with male coworkers on behavioral attitudes toward men. These findings are discussed considering women's participation in the media industry in Saudi Arabia, gender communication, intergroup contact theory, and directions for future research.

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# Chapter One: Introduction

The #MeToo movement has heightened research interest in women's negative workplace experiences (Al-Asfour, et al., 2017; Clair et al., 2019; Keyton et al., 2018). However, scholars have paid little attention to women in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia (Al-Asfour et al., 2017). Despite the fact that the population of men and women in Saudi Arabia is roughly equal, around 10 million, women in the labor market make up only 25% of the labor force. In addition, Saudi women have not had sufficient opportunities to work in mixed-gender workplaces, such as the media industry, compared to women in other regions of the world (Hankir, 2019). Culture, social norms and practices, and laws in Saudi Arabia, which are influenced by Islamic teachings, have played a significant role in minimizing women's participation in the Saudi workforce (Faisal, 2011; Farhan et al., 2016; Syed et al., 2018).

Strict gender segregation in the workplace has also been an important factor that has limited careers for women to specific professions, such as teaching and nursing (Khalid, 2018) and prevents women from engaging with non-familial men (Rajkhan, 2014). The traditional practice of isolating Saudi women into female-only work domains was endorsed by legislation and law enforcement (Varshney, 2019). The low proportion of Saudi female workers in general, and particularly in journalism, is also attributed to marginal positions available for women and ambiguous female workers' rights in mixed-gender workplaces (Jeddah Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2013). Communication scholars are well suited to explore industries directly related to communication, such as mass media. For example, according to Akeel (2010), the percentage of women in journalism in 2004 was less than 8% of newspaper staff and around 5% of staff in the broadcast media. These proportions have barely changed in subsequent years (Akeel, 2010). Specifically, many studies have pointed out that gender discrimination and sexual

harassment are common problems that women face in mixed-gender workplaces in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia and around the world (Hankir, 2019; Mcguire et al., 2006; Murrell et al., 1995).

Gender discrimination remains an obstacle for Saudi women (Hankir, 2019; Varshney, 2019). Consistent with some of Islamic teachings, traditional masculine ideologies and laws assert that women should remain at home and that female intellectual capacities are limited (El-Sanabary, 1993). These negative assumptions contribute to discriminatory practices such as increased work hours, lack of training opportunities and development of workforce skills, and lower paying jobs for working women (Al-Asfour et al., 2017; Jeddah Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2013; Khalid, 2018; Tønnessen, 2016). These major constraints have historically prevented women from fully participating in the labor market (Khalid, 2018).

In addition to gender discrimination, sexual harassment is another challenge for Saudi women in mixed-gender workplaces (Akeel, 2003; Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009; Hankir, 2019). According to prior studies and media reports, Saudi Arabia is one of the top three countries for high rates of sexual harassment of women, especially in mixed-gender workplaces, where approximately 16% Saudi women have been sexually harassed (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009; Reuters, 2010). In 2017 and 2018 alone, Saudi courts received about 2,000 cases of sexual harassment from women (Okaz, 2018). In order to avoid negative consequences such as job loss, divorce, or violent reactions from their family members, many female employees have chosen to hide the harassment they experienced at work (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009).

Prior studies indicated gender discrimination and sexual harassment are positive predictors of job stress (Rivera-Torres et al., 2013), lower psychological well-being, physical health challenges, and job dissatisfaction (Dougherty & Meyer, 2016; Leskinen et al., 2011). In

addition, women who suffered discrimination and sexual harassment reportedly had a higher intention to leave their job and displayed negative attitudes toward male colleagues and men in general (Al-Ahmadi, 2009; Al-Hazmi et al., 2017; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hersch, 2011). Contributing to prior literature, the first objective of the current study is to examine the influence that gender discrimination and sexual harassment have on work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction) and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes) toward Saudi men in general by focusing on Saudi women journalists' perspectives.

Contrary to the negative impacts of gender discrimination and sexual harassment on women's participation and success in the workplace, prior literature on social support indicated social support (i.e., emotional, informational and instrumental) received from various sources (e.g., family members, friends, and coworkers) positively influenced work related outcomes for marginalized groups, such as women in the workplace (Zamberi Ahmad, 2011; Hodges, 2017; Azim, & Islam, 2018). Contributing to prior literature on social support, the second objective of the current study is to examine the influence of received social support on Saudi female journalists' work-related problems (i.e., job stress, intention to leave), job satisfaction), and attitudes toward Saudi men in general. In addition to social support, recent supportive government policy changes have successfully encouraged social organizations to support working women in Saudi Arabia (Naseem & Dhruva, 2017). Because of Saudi government's development plan, Saudi Vision 2030, Saudi women's representation in the workplace has recently increased and Saudi women are now venturing into new professions and previously unexplored professional domains (Soliman, & Al Rubaie, 2019). Saudi Vision 2030 aims to transform Saudi society, including its cultural standards toward women's participation in the workforce and thus enhances Saudi women's effective participants in economic competition

(Alshuwaikhat & Mohammed, 2017; Al-Sati, 2017; Varshney, 2019). For example, Saudi government has created more jobs in various professions to reduce the rate of unemployment among Saudis in general, and women in particular (Elsayed, Elmulthum, 2017). Many Saudi institutions have applied new laws that allow women employees to gain additional workers' rights (Alkameis, 2015; Nugali, 2019) and to sanction people who directly or indirectly harass or assist in harassing women in the workplace (Nugali, 2018). As a result of these laws supporting women's employment, Saudi Arabia has made one of the biggest improvements toward gender equality since 2017 (World Bank, 2020). However, little research has been undertaken regarding these initiatives and their effectiveness to date. Thus, the timeliness of the present study increases its salience. The third objective of the current study is to examine the influence of Saudi women journalists' perceived governmental support on their work-related outcomes and attitudes toward Saudi men in general.

Indeed, a growing number of Saudi women in the labor market have increased their contact with non-familial members in general and men in particular such as mangers and colleagues. Contact with the opposite sex in the workplace, for example Saudi female journalists' contact with male coworkers, has gained attention from intergroup scholars who focus their investigation on the effect of intergroup contact in reducing prejudice and building positive intergroup relations (Pagotto et al., 2010; Ryan et al., 2015). Guided by Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis, findings in intergroup contact research suggests that contact in optimal conditions (i.e., equal status, common objectives, intergroup cooperation, institutional support) between members of different social groups enhances positive intergroup attitudes. In addition, findings supporting the contact hypothesis indicate that absence of any of these optimal conditions may lead to increased intergroup anxiety and higher level of intergroup threat,

particularly from marginalized groups, such as women. While Allport (1954) and other scholars (e.g., Chu & Griffey, 1985; Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Moody, 2001) considered the optimal conditions as essential for positive intergroup contact to happen, others only considered these conditions as facilitating conditions for positive intergroup contact (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006, 2008).

While the contact hypothesis's focus is on optimal contact conditions (Allport, 1954), intergroup contact theory (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew, 1998) extends the contact hypothesis by focusing on the processes of intergroup contact in understanding intergroup relations. For example, guided by intergroup contact theory, studies have found that intergroup contact could reduce intergroup biases and improve positive intergroup attitudes by improving outgroup knowledge, reducing intergroup anxiety, and increasing intergroup empathy and perspective-taking (Paolini et al., 2004; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Swart et al., 2011).

Inadequate scholarly attention has been paid to Saudi women's communication experiences with male coworkers and their attitudes toward men in general. Although gender segregation was the norm traditionally in Saudi Arabia, recent societal changes and government support aiming to empower women has increased women's participation in mixed-gender workplaces. Contributing to prior intergroup contact research, the fourth objective of the current study is to examine the direct and indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of intergroup contact with male colleagues on attitudes toward men in general from the perspective of female Saudi journalists.

As such, from the perspective of Saudi women journalists, the overarching goals of this study are to investigate how gender-related work problems (i.e., gender discrimination and sexual harassment), social and government support, and intergroup contact with men influence

Saudi women journalists' work-related outcomes and attitudes toward Saudi men in general. The findings of this study are potentially insightful in showcasing women's issues, opinions, perspectives, and struggles in the media industry and the positive roles played by social and government support in order to make the Saudi workplace more diverse and inclusive. Moreover, this study can provide insights in understanding the influences of contact with the opposite sex on women's attitudes toward the dominant group (Saudi men), which may lead to improving women's work environments.

The main objectives and theoretical frameworks of this study are summarized in this chapter. The second chapter reviews the relevant literature on the background of Saudi women in the workforce including media industries; work-related problems, (i.e., gender discrimination, sexual harassment), social and government support, work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction), and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral), intergroup contact theory, and intergroup anxiety. The third chapter describes the methodology of the study in detail. Chapter four presents the statistical analyses and findings. Finally, chapter five discusses the findings in this study and the implications of this study, addresses the limitations, and suggests recommendations for future studies.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

The current study has four essential objectives. First, this study aims to explore predictive effects of work related problems (i.e., gender discrimination and sexual harassment) on work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction), and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral) toward Saudi men in general. Second, this study examines the effects of social support on the similar work-related outcomes and attitudes measures toward Saudi men overall. Third, this study is to measure the effects of government support on the simillar dependent measures. Fourth, the current study aims also to test the direct and indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of female Saudi journalists intergroup contact quantity and quantity with male coworkers on their affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men in general.

This chapter focuses on four key sections. The first section of literature review provides demographic and background information of Saudi Arabian women in the Saudi labor market and media workplace. The second section addresses the common work-related problems (i.e., gender discrimination and sexual harassment) in mixed gender workplaces. This section defines those work-related problems, describes their causes, and discusses the main work-related outcomes, including job stress, intention to leave, job satisfaction, and attitudes toward men in the workplace. Next, the third section addresses the important roles of social and government support in dealing with work-related outcomes and highlights the effects of social and government support on attitudes toward male coworkers and men in general. The fourth section of the literature review discusses intergroup contact theory in order to explain the role of intergroup communication on the intergroup relationship between women and men, particularly in the workplace. As such, this section outlines intergroup contact's (i.e., quantity and quality)

conditions, forms and effects on the women's affective, cognitive and behavioral attitudes towards Saudi men in workplace and in general. The mediator role of intergroup anxiety on the relationship between intergroup contact and intergroup attitudes is also reviewed. Finally, each of the research hypotheses of this study is listed.

**Background of Saudi Arabian Women and Workforce**

Saudi Arabia has a population of approximately 25 million (General Authority for Statistics, 2019). As of 2018, the number of Saudis who work for the government was about 1.2 million employees; 60% men and 40% women and of the two million who work in the private sector; 75% are men and 25% are women. The unemployment rate among Saudi males is about 6%, but more than 20% among Saudi females (General Authority for Statistics, 2019).

Saudi Arabian women are highly educated, with a literacy rate of more than 91% and they compose more than half of domestic university students, as well as those who study abroad (Naseem & Dhruva, 2017; World Economic Forum (WEF), 2017). Around 50% of Saudi women hold a bachelor's degree and are considered to be more qualified for work than men (WEF, 2017). However, the proportion of unemployment remains high among Saudi women (Khizindar, & Darley, 2017). Saudi women have a long history of unequal rights in the workplace and low social involvement. The Global Gender Gap Report (WEF, 2017) stated that among 144 countries, Saudi Arabia ranked 138th, one of the most unequal gender nations globally. While the population of Saudi women is approximately 10 million, only 20% participate in the Saudi labor market versus 80% of men (Alfarran, 2016; WEF, 2017). Regarding Saudi women journalists, recent developments have increased their participations in various media workplace and allowed some of them to hold higher job positions (Rida, 2009). However, the number of female journalists is still limited, compared to male domination in the field (Rida, 2009).

Although, Akeel (2010) stated that there is a lack of statistical information about the number of women working in the media; however, there are hundreds of Saudi women who have worked in various professions in media institutions so far (Alkameis, 2015; Nugali, 2019).

## Gender Discrimination and Sexual Harassment in the Saudi Workplace

### *Gender Discrimination*

Gender discrimination occurs "when personnel decisions are based on gender, an ascribed characteristic, rather than on an individual's qualifications or job performance" (Foley et al., 2005, p. 423). Discrimination appears in the workplace in various ways; such as treating employees unfavorably, awarding different salaries and promotions, and delivering termination or demotion based on gender, rather than performance (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2011). While gender discrimination can impact all genders, it usually has more detrimental effects on women (Krieger, 1999; Gutek et al., 1996 Northcraft & Gutek, 1993). Parker and Cary's. (2017) scholarship identified many different forms of workplace gender discrimination including: lower compensation for similar jobs, incompetent treatment, experienced repeated small slights at work, reduced support from senior leaders, being passed over for important tasks and promotions, feeling isolated, and being turned down for a promotion or job. Although there have been some improvements regarding gender inclusion in the Saudi workplace, women are not involved in higher planning and discussion levels, and power and authority remain in the hands of men (Abalkhail, 2017).

Saudi women have a long history of unequal rights in the workplace and low social involvement (Tailassane, 2019). The Global Gender Gap Report (WEF, 2017) revealed that Saudi Arabia ranked 138$^{th}$ globally out of 144 countries in gender equality, which is below most other countries included in the study. In 2012, the Jeddah Chamber of Commerce, along with the

Arab Center for Research and Consulting Studies, conducted a study to examine women's participation and explore supportive factors that could increase women's involvement in the Saudi workforce. Findings from their study showed income, work hours, commuting distance, and the availability of transportation were the main factors contributing to women's acceptance of job offers. In addition, more than half of the women in their study reported multiple forms of gender discrimination such as lack of training and promotion opportunities, lower salaries, and limited healthcare insurance benefits in the workplace (Jeddah Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2013). Although recent developments have allowed some working women such as journalists to hold higher positions, Saudi women in the workplace including those who hold higher positions still suffer from gender discrimination, such as lack of opportunities to make meaningful contributions to their employing organizations, ineffective training, and limited access to professional resources.

Women working in media outlets have historically experienced explicit gender discrimination. For instance, in 1948 Saudi radio became the first official broadcast media outlet, but Saudi regulations disallowed women's voices to be broadcast on air until 1963 (Sakr, 2008). Like other women in the Saudi society, female journalists suffered from various gender-related biases in the media workplaces, such as prohibitions from driving or traveling alone without permission from male relatives, and restrictions for professional reporting on many events (e.g., sports and politics) that were traditionally covered by men (Akeel, 2003). This type of gender segregation in mixed-gender workplace has had a negative impact on female journalists' experiences, especially in their ability to compete with male colleagues in news production and journalistic distribution (Alnajrani et al., 2018; Kurdi, 2014). Such gender discrimination has led to a host of problems involving, for instance, a lack of respect for working women, financial

discrepancies in compensation, lack of promotion and upward mobility, and constrained opportunities at work (Akeel, 2010; Kurdi, 2014). Moreover, these work-related problems exacerbated the lack family support for women who chose the profession of journalism over family preferences for historically gender segregated professions, such as teaching (Rida, 2009). Collectively, these discriminatory issues have affected Saudi women's active participation in the media industry in Saudi Arabia. The current study addresses the common gender-related work problems that Saudi women journalists face and how those problems are associated with or influence work-related outcomes and general attitudes toward Saudi men.

***Sexual Harassment***

The International Labor Organization (ILO) defines sexual harassment in the workplace as "any unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, request for sexual favors, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature; or other behavior of a sexual nature that makes the recipient feel humiliated, offended and/or intimidated…or creating an intimidating, hostile or inappropriate working environment" (2011, p. 5). Three communal dimensions of sexual harassment documented in several studies are: (a) gender harassment (e.g., anti-female jokes); (b) unwanted sexual attention (e.g., unwanted touching, pressure for dates or sexual behavior); and (c) sexual coercion (e.g., bribes or threats to have a sexual relationship) (Gelfand et al., 1995). The ILO (2011) categorizes sexual harassment in the workplace under five broad categories. The first category, physical harassment, involves unwelcome touching or leering in a sexual fashion. The second category, verbal harassment, involves unwelcome comments or sexual jokes about one's private life or appearance. The third category, gestural harassment, involves sexual body language such as repeated winks or gestures. The fourth category, written or graphic harassment, involves showing pornographic materials or sexual images, or sending

sexual content via email or text message. Finally, the fifth category, emotional harassment, involves unwelcome requests or invitations, insults, or any type of behavior that may indicate an unwanted sexual relationship (ILO, 2011; Leskinen et al., 2011).

Experimental studies of workplace sexual harassment have recognized that harassers are mainly men and the majority of them hold higher careers positions than their victims in the mixed-gender workplace (Dougherty & Meyer, 2016; Pryor, 1995). In organizations that are commonly led by male-dominated positions, or organizations, which tolerate or have no strict laws against harassment, the rate of harassment is likely to increase (Adkins, 1995). Sexual harassment occurred in the workplace due to several causes (Haruna et al., 2016). Job instability and insecurity, low income, family issues such as divorce, and low level of prosecution of harasser in the work place are potential causes of sexual harassment (Adkins, 1995; Dougherty & Meyer, 2016). Poverty can also be a cause of sexual harassment in the workplace. For example, sexual harassment victims frequently involve females who crave to improve their job status, power, and roles due to gender discrimination, which forces them into inferior status and low-paying jobs (Dougherty & Meyer, 2016; Haruna et al., 2016). Furthermore, victims' dependency and reliance on their work colleagues or supervisors for financial assistance or additional payment can result in abuse of authority, workplace bullying, and sexual harassment (Adkins, 1995; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Fitzgerald et al., 1997).

Regarding Saudi women**,** a survey study, which involved about 12,000 people from 24 countries, found that 16% of Saudi workers reported being sexually harassed (Reuters, 2010). In 2009, Asharq Al-Awsat newspaper published the article, "Sexual Harassment and Suffering that Saudi Females Face Working with Men" (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009). It discussed the results of a survey answered by 1,000 Saudi women, working in different fields, such as education, media,

and healthcare. The findings showed 28% of women employed in mixed-gender workplaces had experienced inappropriate conduct, of whom 24% made complaints against their harassers, 4% did not complain in order to keep their jobs, and some left their jobs to avoid further harassment (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009). The types of reported sexual harassment included requests for dates, late-night phone calls from colleagues, and various types of verbal or physical sexual harassment. The women's reactions toward sexual harassment behavior from their co-workers varied (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009).

The reasons behind their silence were to avoid worsening outcomes, such as being perceived as scandalous or being forced by their families to quit their jobs (Reuters, 2010). Overall, previous literature stated that workplace sexual harassment remains a pervasive and underreported global problem against human rights (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Laband, & Lentz, 1998). Sexual harassment in the workplace increases womens' job stress, absenteeism, turnover, decreases job satisfaction, and enhances negative attitudes toward men in general (Dougherty & Meyer, 2016; Hersch, 2015). Based on those findings, the current study examines the effects of workplace sexual harassment on work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, job satisfaction) and attitudes toward men in Saudi Arabia from the Saudi women journalists' perspective.

## Work-Related Outcomes and General Attitudes towards Men

### *Job Stress*

A study conducted by Gillespie et al. (2001) on occupational stress, found sources of stress included "insufficient funding and resources, work overload, poor management practice, job insecurity, and insufficient recognition and reward" (Gillespie et al., 2001, p. 53). Excessive job stress endangers the general well-being of employees (Rivera-Torres et al., 2013), and many

studies have associated job stress with health and work-related problems such as anxiety and depression (Wang et al., 2009), burnout (Melia & Becerril, 2007), and insomnia (Gadinger, et al., 2009). Job stress also has a significant negative impact on institutional performances such as declines in creativity (Hon et al., 2013), productivity (Donald et al., 2005), innovation (Janssen, 2000), and leadership (Lovelace et al., 2007).

Perceived gender discrimination and sexual harassment cause increased job stress, which is associated with declines in physical health and job performance outcomes (O'Brien et al., 2016). Job stress can affect anyone regardless of gender, although women tend to experience more cognitive issues such as mental health disorders, depression, and anxiety (Rivera-Torres et al., 2013). Stress-related health problems, such as heart disease, migraines, higher serious mental illnesses, disrupted sleep patterns, and ulcers, have a tendency to negatively affect work productivity and job performance of women who were subject to discrimination and sexual harassment at work (Khubchandani, & Price, 2015, Merkin & Shah, 2014; Richardsen et al., 2016; Willness et al., 2007).

***Intention to Leave***

An employee's intention to leave refers to their anticipation of quitting a job (Purani & Sahadev, 2008). Several studies have investigated the potential causes of employees leaving their jobs and found the primary predictors of turnover are burnout, job stress and dissatisfaction, availability of employment alternatives, and a lack of support (Applebaum et al., 2010; Barak et al., 2001). Various studies on working women across cultures agreed that two of the most important factors contributing to intention to leave, despite the need for work, were gender discrimination and sexual harassment (Foley et al., 2005; Rosen & Martin; 1998; Salman et al., 2016; Sims et al., 2005). Higher perceived gender inequality and experienced sexual harassment

increase job dissatisfaction and influence the tendency for women to leave (Carr et al., 2000). Women employees who suffer from gender discrimination are less committed due to a discouraging work environment, colleague's attitudes, and other issues that facilitate discrimination (Antecol et al., 2007). Moreover, women employees who experience sexual harassment are more likely to have higher levels of intention to leave and absenteeism (Merkin, 2008). In Saudi Arabia, a study about the relationship between quality of work and turnover intention of nurses showed that 40% of the participants indicated a turnover intention from their current job because of work and salary inequalities (Almalki et al., 2012). On the other hand, quitting a job due to sexual harassment is a commonly used strategy among Saudi women to avoid negative social and familial reactions to the stigma of sexual harassment (Alsharif, 2018).

***Job Satisfaction***

Job satisfaction has been described as an individual's reaction to expectations and evaluation of job attributes that involve salary, quality of work, and responsibility (Cranny et al., 1992). Job satisfaction can reduce absenteeism and turnover rates; increase job performance, foster organizational commitment, and improve behavior (Judge et al., 2001). Job characteristics, as predictors of job satisfaction, include opportunities for training and development, recognition and rewards (Bodur, 2002; Gupta & Sharma, 2009); participative and performance management (Willems et al., 2004; Lin & Shen, 2007); and positive relationships with co-workers (Gordon et al., 2010).

Various global studies have found gender discrimination and sexual harassment as significant negative predictors of job satisfaction (Hutagalung & Ishak, 2012; Long et al., 2016; Shaffer et al., 2000). For example, female employees considered wage gap and organizations' preferential bias toward male workers, especially for the appointment to manage challenging

projects, as the most prominent factors that lower women's job satisfaction (Card et al., 2012). Furthermore, women who had experienced or observed different kinds of sexual harassment by male superiors or coworkers such as teasing, jokes, pressure for dates or sexual favors, touching, cornering, stalking, or gestures, reported lower job satisfaction than did those who had not experienced or witnessed such behaviors (Alshutwi, 2016; Laband, & Lentz, 1998; Long et al., 2016).

***General Attitudes towards Men***

Scholars state that three distinctive components (affective, behavioral, and cognitive) make up the attitude model known as the ABC model (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Van den Berg et al., 2006). The affective or emotional component to attitude refers to an individual's feelings towards people, issues, or events. The behavioral component to attitude relates to tendencies to behave in a specific way (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Wood, 2000). The cognitive or informational component to attitude refers to the person's beliefs associated with thoughts. Various factors form attitudes, such as social and cultural forces, education, family, prejudices, personal experience, the media, and economic and occupational status (Kaya, 2018). All of these factors affect the impact of gender discrimination and sexual harassment on women's attitudes towards men generally and more specifically toward men in the workplace (Hersch, 2011; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Murrell et al., 1995).

Thus, based on the extant literature regarding gender discrimination, sexual harassment and their effects on work-related outcomes and attitudes, this paper aims to analyze the effects of gender discrimination and sexual harassment of Saudi women in the media on work-related outcomes and their attitudes toward Saudi men. Based on the literature review, the first hypothesis is proposed.

**H1**: Controlling for age, education, sex of supervisor, perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment (dichotomous, yes or no) in the workplace are significant positive predictors of Saudi female journalists' perceptions of job stress and intention to leave but are negative predictors of job satisfaction and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive and behavioral) toward Saudi men.

**Social and Government Support**

Among the effective solutions that have been experienced or suggested by various scholars to buffer women in the workplace from the deleterious effects of the gendered workplace problems, outcomes and negative attitudes is the availability of support from various sources including supervisors, colleagues, family members, friends or organizations (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Morelli et al., 2015). Numerous scholars consider social support an important factor that positively shapes and enriches relationships and communication between various social groups such as gender groups (Langford et al. 1997). House (1981) defined the social support concept as the perception and actuality that an individual is cared for and has access to help from supportive social networks. Recently, MacGeorge et al. (2011) defined social support as "verbal and nonverbal behavior produced with the intention of providing assistance to others perceived as needing that aid" (p. 317). Regarding the effectiveness of social support, researchers hypnotized that there are two dominant models typically guide social support research, which are the main effects model, and the stress-buffering model (Cohen & Wills, 1985). The main/ direct effects model predicts that social support is helpful all the time while the buffering model predicts that social support is typically useful during stressful times (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Regarding the buffering model, prior research findings indicate that social support has been recognized as a greater buffer on anxiety caused by work-related problems (Langford et al.,

1997; Uchino, 2006), and improves positive outcomes more frequently in women than in men (Corey et al., 2008; Rivera-Torres et al., 2013). Thus, social support is a particularly relevant communication phenomenon to measure given the current study's interest in Saudi working women.

There are numerous typologies of social support (e.g. Cutrona, 1996; House, 1981; Leach & Braithwaite, 1996), but three of the most salient types to work environments include: emotional (empathy, caring and/or trust); informational (information and suggestions for problem-solving); and instrumental (tangible assistance, aid in kind, skills acquisition) (House, 1981; Krause, 1986; Langford et al. 1997). Cobb (1976) suggested that emotional support is conveyed by making people feel they are cared for, valued, and belong to their social network. Informational support assists people during problem-solving processes and deals with their situational stress (Cronenwett, 1985a, 1985b). Instrumental support, such as financial aid, is associated with tangible and physical forms of help that increases people's well-being (Morelli et al., 2015). Social support can be provided by informal social network members such as spouses, family, friends, and work colleagues (House, 1981; Cutrona, 1996; Leach & Braithwaite, 1996). Social support can also be provided by formal networks, including healthcare professionals, social work practitioners, and government regulations or laws (Guruge & Humphreys 2009).

Regarding government support, the Saudi government provides various types of support to women in the workplace. The Saudi government announced that women are a key partner in the construction and development of society (Qureshi, 2014). The remarkable changes in the Saudi cultural and political system that have occurred in the last decade have produced numerous supportive regulations and laws enhancing women's rights in the country (Estimo & Fareed, 2017). For example, the Saudi government issued a new anti-harassment law to criminalize

sexual and other types of harassment and started female empowerment plans in public and private workplace sectors (Varshney, 2019). Saudi governmental support for women in the workplace has been recognized globally, by enacting reforms that improved women's mobility and ensured protection from sexual harassment (World Bank, 2020).

Various studies from disciplines such as social health, psychology, and nursing, have consensus on the positive influences of social support on health, work well-being, and individual attitudes (Auslander & Litwin, 1991; Schwarzer & Leppin, 1992). Both perceived and received social support from family, employment networks, and governmental laws have been important factors lessening job stress, (Simich et al., 2004), reducing the probability of leaving a job (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), increasing job satisfaction, enhancing positive attitudes toward colleagues in the workforce (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), and fostering overall well-being (Morelli et al., 2015). However, perceived support is consistently linked to better mental health, reduced strain, and overall well-being than received social support particularly in buffering model (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Drawing on the limited literature regarding how social and governmental support (or lack thereof) affects Saudi women employees, the second hypothesis of the current study is:

**H2:** Controlling for age, education, and sex of supervisor, social support received and government support of women regarding work are significant negative predictors of Saudi female journalists' perceptions of job stress and intention to leave but are positive predictors of job satisfaction and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive & behavioral) toward Saudi men.

**Intergroup Contact Theory**

Intergroup contact theory (ICT), which has its origin in Gordon Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis, states that individuals involved in frequent and meaningful intergroup contact with

outgroup members are less likely to be prejudiced toward outgroup members than those who do not have or have minimal intergroup contact experiences (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew, 1998). Allport (1954) argued that positive intergroup contact has beneficial value for reducing prejudice, countering negative attitudes, and increasing awareness of marginalized groups. Specifically, Allport (1954) proposed in his original work that there are four optimal conditions for positive and effective intergroup contact to happen: equal status, common goals, intergroup cooperation, and institutional support. A meta-analysis conducted by Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) was among the most influential studies that revealed support of Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis. Using data from 713 samples across 515 studies that examined the impact of direct intergroup contact between advantaged and disadvantaged groups, results of the meta-analysis indicated a significant effect of contact on decreased prejudice ($r$ = -.21, $p$ < .001). More importantly, results indicated that the positive effect of intergroup contact was significantly greater when contact between groups included Allport's optimal conditions for ideal contact ($r$ = -0.29, $p$ < .001) (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). However, results also indicated that in the absence of the optimal conditions, intergroup contact was also associated with reduced biases (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Guided by intergroup contact theory (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew, 1998; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006, 2008), recent studies have focused on some major explaining mechanisms or mediating processes between contact and intergroup relations instead of contact conditions. For example, recent studies stressed that intergroup contact lowered prejudice by reducing intergroup anxiety, increasing empathy, and promoting knowledge about the outgroup and ingroup appraisal (Davies et al., 2011; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006, 2008).

However, a large number of studies have focused primarily on the effects of intergroup contact on dominate groups' attitudes towards various members minority groups in Western

cultures such as African Americans, Muslims, and LGBTQIA (Binder et al., 2009). Those studies found that direct contact with minority group members significantly reduces prejudice. However, studies also demonstrated that contact outcome for minorities might be different from that of the majorities. (Greenland & Brown, 1999; Islam & Hewstone, 1993). While Tropp and Pettigrew's (2005) meta-analysis found that intergroup contact influences members of both high and low status groups, they stated that the contact effect is mostly weaker for members of low status groups, possibly because the contact experiences of members of low status groups are often of lesser quality than those of majority group members (Greenland & Brown, 1999; Islam & Hewstone, 1993). Minority group members are more sensitive to the disadvantaged status of their groups (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Tropp & Pettigrew, 2005). In addition, minority group members are more willing to establish ingroup cohesion and solidarity than the higher status group members (Brown, 2000). Thus, strong bonds among minority group members may restrict their interactions with majority group members.

Previous intergroup contact research has paid inadequate attention to disadvantaged group's contact experiences, especially in non-Western cultures, particularly in the Middle Eastern regions (Tropp & Pettigrew, 2005; Zhang et al., 2018; Varshney, 2019). As such, the current study focuses on the perspective of a non-Western minority or lower status group, women in mixed-gender workplaces in Saudi Arabia in understanding the contact and attitude association. In the last number of decades, intergroup contact studies have examined the effects of various social groups communication, such as racial, age and national groups, on attitudes, fewer studies have focused on cross-gender contact and attitudes as men and women commonly have a large number of cross-sex/gender interactions in social and professional lives in general around the globe and that contact might be too common to be a useful predictor of cross-

sex/gender attitudes (Becker et al., 2014). Women in mixed-gender workplaces in Saudi Arabia such as female journalists, however, represent a unique minority and lower-status group. Journalism or the media profession in general was traditionally dominated (and are still) by men as women were not allowed to contact or work with men outside the family (Alkameis, 2015). Saudi media regulations banned women's voice on the air until 1963 and removed women from television newscasts and blotted out the faces of women in newspaper images in 1979 and subsequent years (Sakr, 2008). For a long time, women had limited employment opportunities in traditional journalism. For those women who became journalists had limited publishing space and select topics they were allowed to cover among other challenges in the traditional newspaper (Akeel, 2003). As such, many Saudi female journalists have transferred to work in online journalism (Alnajrani et al., 2018).

Even nowadays Saudi women journalists only account for about less than 10% of the employees working in both traditional (e.g., newspaper, magazine, radio, television) and new media outlets or online journalism (Akeel, 2010). Female journalists frequently work for lower salary or unpaid extra hours, lack of promotion opportunities, limited participation in mainstream programs or public events, and have experienced sexual harassment (Akeel, 2010, Alkameis, 2015). Moreover, Saudi female journalists including women in leadership positions have been working under occupational gender segregation, which has limited their direct interactions with their male colleagues for decades (Kurdi, 2014). All those historic obstacles have played harmful roles in Saudi journalists' work experiences, personal and professional growth, and interaction frequency and quality with colleagues (Alsharif, 2018; Kurdi, 2014).

Given the social movements and government support toward women's rights, negative attitudes due to gender discrimination remain as a significant global problem and particularly

with Saudi women who highly suffer from various types of gender discrimination and sexual harassment in the workplace (Varshney, 2019). Hence, studying women's contact experiences with male coworkers and their attitudes towards men in general in mixed-gender workplaces in Saudi Arabia is not only be theoretically significant, but also is practically meaningful, especially in the context of Saudi government's supportive plans that encourages social transformation and women's participation in the mixed-gender workforce (Al-Asfour et al. 2017; Varshney, 2019).

***Contact Quantity and Quality***

A common method of measuring the influences of intergroup contact on intergroup relationship in numerous contact studies is by measuring the effects of quantity and quality of contact between groups and their attitudes toward the outgroup (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Voci & Hewstone, 2003). The quantity of contact refers to the frequency with which an individual interacts or engages in contact with members of a particular outgroup, whereas the quality of contact refers to contact that is considered as positive, valuable, and cooperative between various social groups (Imamura et al., 2011; Voci & Hewstone, 2003; Zhang et al., 2018). The quantity of contact is an important factor in altering attitudes toward an outgroup due to the continued contact and accessible information about a social group (Harwood et al., 2005; Imamura et al., 2011, 2012), which can elevate group members' willingness to intervene on behalf of minority groups (Abbott & Cameron, 2014). Several scholars (e.g., Biernat & Crandall, 1994; Islam and Hewstone, 1993; Harwood, et al., 2005) examined attitudes of various groups members towards different social and cultural outgroups and they found the frequency of contact that members of specific groups (e.g., race, age, & religion) had with people from different social groups was positively associated with their attitudes toward these

outgroups. Thus, the contact quantity was found to be a positive predictor of improving intergroup relations in various contexts (Imamura et al., 2012).

On the other hand, quality of contact between different social groups has also been widely examined. The majority of studies pointed out that greater quality contact, rather than quantity, is more likely to increase positive intergroup outcomes, such as preference to communicate with outgroups (Cameron & Rutland, 2006; Cameron et al., 2006), increase intergroup helping (Johnston et al., 2018), and positive attitudes (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006, 2008). Other studies showed further advantages of increasing contact quality between various social groups. For instance, Leonard et al. (2014) found that higher levels of intergroup contact quality in adolescents predicted greater outgroup trust, lower intergroup anxiety, and greater outgroup tolerance. Moreover, Prestwich et al. (2008) found that increased intergroup quality of contact is associated with positive attitudes towards outgroups. Consequently, the findings of intergroup contact studies revealed that both quantity and quality of contact can improve positive evaluations and stereotypes of outgroups (Vezzali et al., 2010), maintain interpersonal relationships, and increase positive attitudes towards outgroups overall (Brown et al., 2007).

### *Intergroup Attitudes*

In various intergroup contact research, attitudes have been measured as frequent dependent variables because they include people's feelings, prejudice, stereotypes, behavioral tendencies, or beliefs when group members react favorably or unfavorably towards a designated group such as a cultural, religious, age, gender, or racial group (Drury et al., 2016; Wood, 2000). Attitudes are defined as evaluative responses to specific people, ideas, events, groups, objects or classes of objects (Baron & Byrne, 1984; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Attitudes in intergroup contact studies are regularly measured on three distinctive dimensions -- affective, behavioral,

and cognitive (Pettigrew, 1986; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Affective attitudes refer to how individuals feel (e.g., positive or negative) towards the outgroup (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Behavioral attitudes refer to individuals' willingness to engage the outgroup in various ways (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Van den Berg et al., 2006). Finally, cognitive attitudes refer to individuals' beliefs, thoughts, and attributes and perceptions about a designed outgroup (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Van den Berg et al., 2006). Those three components, which have been known as the ABC model of attitudes, are among the most frequently used dependent measures in studies of intergroup relations (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Van den Berg et al., 2006).

Overall, previous intergroup contact research indicated that meaningful and frequent intergroup contact leads to positive intergroup relations (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew, 1998). Hence, in line with prior literature, the third objective of this study aims to investigate the contact effects from the perspective of Saudi women journalists as a lower status group on their attitudes toward Saudi men, a higher status group. Based on the above literature review, the third hypothesis is proposed.

**Hypothesis 3:** Intergroup contact quantity and quality have direct effects on Saudi female journalists' attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral) toward Saudi men.

**Intergroup Anxiety**

Studies have paid profound attention on the effect of the intergroup anxiety on the association between intergroup contact and attitudes (Brown & Hewstone, 2005). Intergroup anxiety was defined as the negative affective state or stressful feelings (e.g., uneasiness, worry, frustration, discomfort) that individuals may feel or anticipate when they interact with outgroup members (Stephan, 2014; Stephan& Stephan, 1985). According to Stephan and Stephan (1985), intergroup anxiety may arise from lack of knowledge about or contact with the outgroup or from

contact, past negative personal contact experiences with outgroup members. Intergroup anxiety could also arise from people's negative expectations of rejection or discrimination during intergroup communication, differences in values and beliefs, and inequality in group status (Barlow et al., 2010; Butz, Plant, 2006; Stephan & Stephan, 1985). On the other hand, intergroup anxiety constitutes a direct source of intergroup biases and prejudice (Plant & Devine, 2003; Stephan, 2014; Stephan & Stephan, 1985). For example, intergroup anxiety intensifies harmful feelings toward an outgroup, triggers negative stereotypes and prejudice, and hinders future intergroup interaction (Matthews et al., 2009; Pagotto et al., 2010; Trawalter et al., 2012).

### *The Mediating Role of Intergroup Anxiety*

Intergroup anxiety has been found in several studies as the focal mediator between intergroup contact and intergroup attitudes (Imamura et al., 2016; Paolini et al., 2004; Shim et al., 2012; Stephan, 2014; Stephan & Stephan, 1999; Swart et al., 2011; Zhang, et al., 2018). Intergroup anxiety served as a mediator between intergroup contact (e.g., quantity and quality) and intergroup attitudes for both majority and minority group members (Brown & Hewstone, 2005). The mediator effect of intergroup anxiety occurs when contact has a profound effect on reducing anxiety, which consequently result in improved intergroup perceptions, feelings, and behaviors (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). For example, Greenland and Brown's (1999) study found that intergroup anxiety mediates the association between quality of contact and negative out-group affect and intergroup prejudice. Other studies have examined the role of intergroup anxiety as a mediator between intergroup contact and different types of prejudices in the workplace (Pagotto et al., 2010; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Voci & Hewstone, 2003). For instance, Voci and Hewstone (2003) found that anxiety mediated the positive effect of contact on Italians' attitudes towards African immigrants. Similarly, intergroup anxiety was found as a mediator of the

positive effect of contact on outgroup attitudes and perceived outgroup variability between Muslims and Hindus (Islam & Hewstone, 1993). Pagotto et al. (2010) conducted another study to examine the effectiveness of intergroup contact between hospital workers and immigrant patients in reducing prejudice towards immigrants. Findings in the study indicated that positive effects of intergroup contact for both groups at work were partially mediated by increased empathy and reduced anxiety (Pagotto et al., 2010). Similarly, intergroup anxiety was found to be a full mediator of the associations between intergroup contact and both negative attitudes toward immigrants and team functioning during practical training (Marletta et al., 2017). In line with prior literature in various intergroup contact contexts, the fourth hypothesis of this study is to examine the indirect effects (through intergroup anxiety) of contact on the three dimensions of female Saudi journalists' attitudes toward members of advantaged group (Saudi men).

**Hypothesis 4:** Intergoup anxiety mediates the relationships between perceived intergroup contact quantity and quality and female Saudi journalists' attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive & behavioral) toward Saudi men.

# Chapter Three: Method

This study utilized a survey design method to explore the recent work situations of Saudi women journalists in the Saudi media workplace. This study chose a survey as the best method for collecting data to identify potential associations between the variables of this study. The central objectives of this study are to (H1) examine the predictive association of work related problems (i.e., gender discrimination and sexual harassment) and (H2) received social support and perceived government support with Saudi women journalists' work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction), and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral) toward Saudi men in general. Furthermore, this study tests the direct (H3) and indirect (H4: through intergroup anxiety) effects of female Saudi journalists intergroup contact quantity and quantity with male coworkers on their affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men in general

## Participants

Female Saudi journalists ($N$ = 207; $M$ age =35, $SD$ = 9.26) who were employed in the public and private sector of Saudi media institutions participated in this study. Participants were volunteers recruited through the Saudi Journalists Association (SJA) and completed an online survey. While the majority of the sample were working full time (52%) (i.e., 108), 24% (i.e., 49) were working part-time, and (24%) (i.e., 50) did not report their work status. Regarding education, 92% of the participants (i.e., 190) had a college degree with an average of 10.83 total years of education ($SD$ = 6.34). The majority of the sample (75%) (i.e., 155) were working for a male supervisor, while (25%) (i.e., 52) were working for a female supervisor at the time of data collection. Participants reported an average of 8.62 years ($SD$ = 7.07) working with the media industry. Of the participants, (31%) (i.e., 65) worked in traditional media (e.g., newspaper,

magazine, television, and radio), 32% (i.e., 66) in digital or new media (e.g., online journalism), 18% (i.e., 37) worked in public relations management, and 19% (i.e., 39) did not report media industry they currently work for. Moreover, participants reported having an average number of 8.55 male friends (*SD* = 15.57) and 8.55 female friends (*SD* = 15.40) in the workplace.

**Materials and Procedures**

The original version of the survey questionnaire was written in English and then translated into Arabic by professional bilingual Arabic/English translators. The back translation to English was conducted by seven Saudi-identified translators (i.e., three women and four men), six of whom had a doctoral degree in education or commination earned from higher education institutions in the United States and one had a master's degree in Linguistics. After getting approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at a mid-Western University in the United States (see Appendix A), the survey was distributed online. The online survey encompassed two sections (see Appendix B). In the first section, participants were asked to provide demographic and background information (e.g. age, years of education, years with the media industry, sex of their current supervisor, current work status and type). In the second section, participants answered questions related to the primary outcomes of the current study.

**Major Measurements**

***Gender Discrimination***

Eight five-point Likert items were adapted from Sanchez and Brock's 10-item scale (1996) to measure Saudi female journalists' perceptions of gender discrimination in the workplace ($\alpha$ = .90, *M* =2.46, *SD* = .97; 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). Examples of those items include "*At work, I sometimes feel that my gender is a limitation*", "*My gender has a negative influence on my career advancement*", and "*People I work with sometimes make sexist*

*statements and/or decisions*". Higher scores indicate more negative perceptions of gender discrimination by women in regard to their workplaces

***Sexual Harassment***

Sixteen five-point Likert items were adapted from a broadly used Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) (Fitzgerald et al., 1988) to measure Saudi female journalists' overall experience of sexual harassment in mixed-gender workplaces. The original scale consists of three components -- gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion that women tend to experience in the workplace. Participants were asked to indicate how often they had experienced these three types of sexual harassment from male supervisors, co-workers, or employees in the workplace ($\alpha$ = .97, $M$ = 1.26, $SD$ =.46; 1 = Never, 5 = Very often;). Example of those items are (a) gender harassment (e.g., "*Made offensive sexist remarks"*); (b) unwanted sexual attention (e.g., "*Repeated requests for dates despite being told no"*); and (c) sexual coercion (e.g., "*Bribed you to engage in sexual behavior by offering a reward"*). Follow up informal conversations with some Saudi women after data collection indicated that some of the questions made them either feel uncomfortable or unwilling to answer for fear of retaliation (e.g., "*Told offensive sexual stories or jokes", "Attempted to stroke, fondle, or kiss you", and "Implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative"*). This pattern is consistent with prior literature in that only a small proportion of (i.e., 4% to16%) cases of sexual harassment are reported officially in Saudi Arabia (Reuters, 2010). Statistical analysis showed that the frequency distribution of the variable was non-normal (i.e., positively skewed; *Skewness*=3.57, *Kurtosis*=16.47). Cohen (2008) uses a skew cutoff of 2 and a Kurtosis cutoff of 7 for identifying non-normal distributions (see also Kim 2013; West et al., 1996). Subsequent Log Transformation

(Log10) using SPSS failed to correct the skewness (*M* = .08, *SD* = .12, *Skewness* = 2.13, *Kurtosis* = 5.33 after data transformation).

The current study also used an alternative measure of sexual harassment. In addition to the five-point Likert scale items, participants answered a close-ended question about whether they had ever experienced sexual harassment in the workplace (0 = No , 1 = Yes). Of the participants, 24% (*N* = 49) answered yes, which is comparable to prior report about the percentages of women who had experienced sexual harassment in mixed-gender workplaces in Saudi Arabia (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009). As the frequency distribution of the interval scale measuring sexual harassment was not normally distributed, the current study used the categorical variable (yes or no) in data analysis.

***Received Social Support***

Received social support was measured with 16 five-point Likert items ($\alpha$ = .85, *M* = 2.65, *SD* = .80; 1 = Not at all, 5 = Always). These items were adapted from the Inventory of Social Supportive Behaviors (ISSB) (Barrera et al.,1981). The ISSB is a 40-item scale designed to measure how often individuals received specific forms of social support during the past month. Of the 40 items, 16 items were selected and modified to fit the cultural context in the current study. Participants were asked to indicate how frequently they received support from other people (e.g., family, friends, and co-workers) in various ways (e.g., *"Listened to your work-related problems", "Showed concern towards your job-related problems", and "Gave you aid in dealing with your work-related problems"*) when they had problems in the workplace. Higher scores indicate more received support.

***Perceived Government Support***

Thirteen five-point Likert items ($\alpha$ = .96, *M* = 3.58, *SD* = 1.06; 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree) were constructed based on Eisenberger et al. (1986) to measure perceived government support. The original scale with 36 items was designed to measure perceived organizational support and employees' commitment to the organization. The terms "organization and institutions", which used in the original scale were replaced with term "Saudi government." Moreover, items were reworded to match the objective of the current study on Saudi women's perceptions of governmental support. Specifically, participants were asked to indicate their perceptions of Saudi governmental policies and laws of supporting women's rights in the workplace (*e.g., "The Saudi government has policies and laws that support recruiting women for the workplace", "The Saudi government has policies and laws that help to reduce gender discrimination in the workplace", "The Saudi government has policies and laws that help to reduce sexual harassment in the workplace"*). Higher scores indicate more perceived government's support of women in the workplace.

***Intergroup Contact Quantity (Frequency)***

Three items on a five-point Likert scale ($\alpha$ = .85, *M* = 2.65, *SD* =.80; 1= Never, 5 = Always) were adapted from Spencer-Rodgers and McGovern (2002) to measure participants contact quantity/frequency (see also Imamura et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2018) by changing the original targets of communication (e.g., "foreign students", "the person" or "the grandparent") to "male coworkers". Participants answered three questions about their contact frequency with male coworkers in the workplace (*e.g., "How often do you communicate with male coworkers in your workplace?", "How often do you work as group with male coworkers in your workplace?", and "How often do you do things socially with male coworkers such as eating out or visiting each*

*other's homes?"*). "Foreign students" in the original scale was replaced by "male journalists" to fit the context of this study. Higher scores indicate more frequent contact with men in general.

***Intergroup Contact Quality***

Six items on a five-point Likert scale ($\alpha$ = .89, $M$ = 3.45, $SD$ = .85; 1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree) were adapted from Ortiz and Harwood (2007) to measure participants' contact quality with male coworkers in the workplaces. Those items included (*e.g., "My communication with male coworkers is beneficial in the workplace", "My communication with male coworkers is valuable in the workplace", and "I enjoy conversations with my male colleagues in the workplace"*). In this scale's items, the word "person" in the original scale was replaced by "male coworkers" to fit the context of this study. Higher scores indicate better quality of contact with men in general.

***Intergroup Anxiety***

Five items on a five-point Likert scale ($\alpha$ = .82; $M$ = 2.29, $SD$ = .78; 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree) were used to measure participants' intergroup anxiety during or when expecting communication with Saudi men in general. These items (i.e., *"I feel [anxious, nervous, relaxed, worried, threatened] when I come into contact with men in general"*) were adapted from Stephan's (2014) seven items that have been widely used to measure intergroup anxiety. One item (*i.e., relaxed*) was reversed coded. Two items of Stephan' (2014) scale (at ease and awkward) were excluded due to repetition. High scores indicate higher level of intergroup anxiety.

***Job Stress***

Six items adapted from Motowidlo et al. (1986) measured job stress ($\alpha$ = .87, $M$ = 2.56, $SD$ = .98). The original scale was designed to measure occupational stress for hospital nurses in

the United States. In the present study, Saudi female journalists were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree) about their job stress, (*e.g., "I feel a great deal of stress because of my job", "Very few stressful things happen to me at work", "My job is extremely stressful"*). Higher scores indicate higher job stress.

***Intention to Leave***

Four five-point Likert items were used to assess participants' intention to quit their current job (α = .87, *M* =2.65, *SD* =1.14; 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). Three items in this scale were based on Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth's (1978) theory on employee's turnover intention among private sector employees *(i.e., "I often think about quitting my current job", "I am actively searching for an alternative to my current job", and "As soon as it is possible, I will leave my current job")*. The word "organization" in the original scale was replaced with "current job" to fit this study's context. A fourth item was added for this study (i.e., *"I deserve a better job than what I have now")*. Higher scores indicate higher intention to quit a job.

***Job Satisfaction***

Job satisfaction of Saudi women journalists was measured with five items taken from the Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) scale of job satisfaction (*α* = .93, *M* = 3.98, *SD* = .96). The original scale measures the overall job satisfaction of female office employees. Participants in this study were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement by selecting a number on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) about their satisfaction with their current job *(e.g., "I find real enjoyment in my job", "Most days I am enthusiastic about my*

*job", and "Overall, I feel satisfied with my job")*. Higher scores indicate more agreement with the statement.

***Affective Attitudes***

Eight five-point semantic differential items containing bipolar adjective pairs were used to measure participants' feelings towards Saudi men ($\alpha$ = .88, *M* =3.33, *SD* = .87). Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they felt Negative-Positive, Unfavorable-Favorable, etc., towards men in Saudi Arabia. Six bipolar adjective pairs were adapted from original six-item measurement of Wright et al. (1997). Additionally, two items (i.e. Favorable-Unfavorable and Pleasant and Unpleasant) were adapted from Ristić et al. (2019) based on the conceptualization of affective attitudes as positive or negative feelings (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Higher scores indicate more positive feelings toward Saudi men.

***Cognitive Attitudes***

Fifteen five-point semantic differential items were used to measure the cognitive attitudes toward Saudi men ($\alpha$ = .95, *M* =3.27, *SD* =.84). Each five-point semantic differential item contained a pair of adjectives indicating participants' perceptions of Saudi men in general. Nine bipolar adjectives were adapted from Pettigrew & Troop's (2005) scale, *(e.g., "Warm-Cold, Tolerant-Intolerant, Good-natured-Not good-natured*, etc.")*.* Other seven bipolar adjectives were adapted from Islam & Hewstone's (1993) scale (*e.g., "*aggressive, conservative, cool-headed, deceitful, hospitable, intelligent, patriotic and selfish, etc.")*.* Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they thought men in Saudi Arabia were "Deceitful-Truthful, Incompetent-Competent, etc.". Higher scores indicate more positive perceptions of Saudi men.

***Behavioral Attitudes***

Thirteen five-point Likert items were used to measure Participants' behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men in general ($\alpha$ = .91, *M* =3.42, *SD* = .74; 1 = Extremely unwilling, 5 = Extremely willing). Eight items (*e.g., "I am willing to accept men as close friends", "I am willing to work with men on the same team", and "I am willing to accept gifts from men"*) were adapted from Tropp (2003), An additional five items were added to this study in line with Tropp's (2003) scale *(e.g., "I am willing to initiate conversations with men", "I am willing to a*ccept men to be my boss at work"*, and "I am willing to attend public events with men").* Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they were willing to interact/engage with men in Saudi Arabia in general. Higher scores indicate more willingness to interact/engage with Saudi men.

# Chapter Four: Statistical Analyses and Results

## Statistical Analysis and Findings of the Study: H1 and H2

From the perspective of female Saudi journalists, this study tested the predictive associations between gender discrimination, sexual harassment (H1), received social support and perceived governmental support (H2) and work-related outcomes (i.e., job stress, intention to leave, and job satisfaction) and attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral) toward Saudi men. Controlling for the effects of demographic variables (i.e., age, years of education, and sex of supervisor), a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses 1 and 2. Before the major hypotheses were tested, zero-order correlations among the major variables were computed (see Table 1). Hypothesis 1 predicted that, controlling for age, education, and sex of supervisor, female journalist participants' perceived gender discrimination and sexual harassment (dichotomous, yes or no) in the workplace would be significant positive predictors of job stress and intention to leave but would be negative predictors of job satisfaction and attitudes toward Saudi men. Hypothesis 2 predicted that, controlling for age, education, sex of the supervisor, perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment (yes or no) in the workplace, received social support about work-related problems and government support of women at work would be significant negative predictors of job stress and intention to leave, but positive predictors of job satisfaction and attitudes toward Saudi men.

In order to test HI and H2, six separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with job stress, intention to leave, job satisfaction, and affective, cognitive, or behavioral attitudes as the dependent variable for each analysis. Regressions were performed for the total sample on each of the six criterion measures (see Table 2 & Table 3). For each of the six regression analyses, age, years of education, and sex of supervisor were entered in model 1,

perceived gender discrimination and reported sexual harassment were entered in model 2, and the two support variables (i.e., received social support about work and perceived government support of women at work) were entered in model 3.

***Job Stress***

Hierarchical regression analysis results indicated that the control variables in model 1 as a block of variables did not significantly predict job stress, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F$ (3, 195) = .68, $p > .05$. In addition, age, years of education, and sex of supervisor were nonsignificant univariate predictors of job stress (see Table 2). Controlling for the variables included in model 1, the additional predictors included in model 2 explained a significant proportion of variance in job stress, $\Delta R^2 = .32$, $F$ (2, 193) = 46.2, $p < .001$, which could be attributed to gender discrimination, $\beta = .43$, $t(193) = 6.07$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = .23$, $t(193) = 3.40$, $p < .001$, respectively. Hence, H1 was supported regarding job stress in that perceived gender discrimination and sexual harassment had significant positive predictive associations with job stress. In other words, higher levels of perceived gender discrimination and experiences of sexual harassment were associated with higher levels of job stress.

Controlling for the effects of variables in model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 did not explain additional variation in job stress, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F$ (2, 191) = .04, $p > .05$. However, gender discrimination, $\beta = .42$, $t(191) = 5.67$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = .23$, $t(191) = 3.34$, $p < .001$, remained as significant univariate predictors of job stress while received social support about work and perceived government support of women were non-significant predictors. Hence, H2 was not supported regarding job stress.

***Intention to Leave***

Hierarchical regression analysis results suggested that the control variables in model 1 did not significantly predict intention to leave, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F$ (3, 195) = 1.05, $p > .05$. Furthermore, age, years of education, and gender of boss were nonsignficant univariate predictors of intention to leave (see Table 2). Controlling for the variables in model 1, the additional predictors included in model 2 explained a significant proportion of variance in intention to leave, $\Delta R^2 = .26$, $F$ (2, 193) = 33.8, $p < .001$, which could be explained by the effects of gender discrimination, $\beta = .43$, $t(193) = 5.80$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = .15$, $t(193) = 2.11$, $p < .05$. Consequently, H1 was supported regarding intention to leave in that perceived gender discrimination and sexual harassment had significant positive predictive associations with intention to leave. In other words, higher level of perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment in the workplaces were associated with higher intention to leave the current job.

Controlling for the variables in model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 did not explain an additional portion of variation in intention to leave, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F$ (2, 191) = .12, $p > .05$. Nonetheless, gender discrimination, $\beta = .44$, $t(191) = 5.65$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = .15$, $t(191) = 2.13$, $p < .05$, remained significant individual predictors of the intention to leave while received social support about gender-related work problems and perceived government support of women were non-significant predictors of the dependent variable. Hence, H2 was not supported regarding intention to leave.

***Job Satisfaction***

Hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that the control variables in model 1 did not significantly predict job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F$ (3, 195) = 1.0, $p > .05$. None of the demographic and background variables in model 1 (i.e., age, years of education, and sex of

supervisor), significantly predicted job satisfaction (see Table 2). Controlling for the variables in model 1, the additional predictors included in model 2 explained a significant (but small) proportion of variance in job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $F$ (2, 193) = 5.1, $p < 05$. Surprisingly, none of the variables in model 2 (i.e., age, years of education, sex of supervisor, gender discrimination, and sexual harassment significantly predicted job satisfaction. Hence, H1 was not supported regarding job satisfaction.

Controlling for model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 explained a significant small proportion of variation in job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F$ (2, 191) = 7.00, $p < 001$, which could be attributed to perceived governmental support of women, $\beta = .23$, $t(191) = 3.18$, $p < .01$. Hence, H2 was partially supported regarding job satisfaction. In other words, higher level of perceived governmental support of women journalists in the Saudi media workplace was significantly associated with higher level of job satisfaction.

***Affective Attitudes***

Hierarchical regression analysis results showed that demographic and background variables entered in model 1 did not significantly predict affective attitudes, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F$ (3, 195) = .01, $p > .05$. Age, years of education, and sex of supervisor were nonsignficant univariate predictors of affective attitudes (see Table 3). Controlling for model 1, the additional predictors included in model 2 explained an additional significant proportion of variation in affective attitudes $\Delta R^2 = .15$, $F$ (2, 193) = 16.4, $p < 001$, which could be attributed to gender discrimination, $\beta = -.28$, $t(193) = -3.55$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = -.16$, $t(193) = -2.09$, $p < .05$. Hence, H1 was supported regarding affective attitudes. In other words, higher level of perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment were significantly

associated with Saudi female journalists' negative and unfavorable feelings toward Saudi men in general.

Controlling for model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 explained additional portions of variation on affective attitudes ΔR2 = .05, $F$ (2, 191) = 5.7, $p$ < 01. Specifically, gender discrimination, $\beta$ = -.20, $t$(191) = -2.47, $p$ < .05, and sexual harassment, $\beta$ = -.15, $t$(191) = -1.97, $p$ = .05, remained as significant negative predictors of the dependent variable while received social support, $\beta$ = .17, $t$(191) = 2.56, $p$ < .05, and perceived government support of women, $\beta$ = .14, $t$(191) = 1.95, $p$ < .05, were significant positive predictors of the dependent variable. Hence, H2 was supported regarding affective attitudes. In other words, higher levels of received social support about work and perceived government support of women were significantly associated with Saudi female journalists' positive feelings toward Saudi men in general after controlling for the effects of perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment.

***Cognitive Attitudes***

Hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that the set of variables in model 1 did not significantly predict cognitive attitudes, $\Delta R^2$ = .01, $F$ (3, 195) = .37, $p$ > .05. Age, years of education, and sex of supervisor were nonsignficant predictors of the dependent variable. Controlling for model, the additional predictors included in model 2 explained a significant proportion of variation in cognitive attitudes, $\Delta R^2$ = .28, $F$ (2, 193) = 38.4, $p$ < 001, which could be attributed to gender discrimination, $\beta$ = -.46, $t$(193) = -6.32, $p$ < .001 and sexual harassment, $\beta$ = -.15, $t$(193) = -2.07, $p$ < .05. Hence, H1 was supported regarding cognitive attitudes. In other words, higher level of gender discrimination and experience of harassment were associated with lower level of positive perceptions of Saudi men in general.

Controlling for model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 explained an additional portion of variation in cognitive attitudes, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F$ (2, 191) = 5.53, $p$ < 001. Specifically, gender discrimination, $\beta = -.38$, $t(191) = -5.14$, $p < .001$, and sexual harassment, $\beta = -.13$, $t(191) = -1.92$, $p = .05$, remained as significant negative single predictors of the dependent variable, while perceived government support of women was a positive predictor of cognitive attitudes, $\beta = .17$, $t(191) = 2.63$, $p < .01$, (see Table 3). Received social support about work was a non-significant predictor of cognitive attitudes. Hence, H2 was partially supported regarding cognitive attitudes. In other words, higher level of perceived government support of women in the workplace was significantly associated with higher level of positive perceptions of Saudi men in general after controlling for the effects of perceived gender discrimination and experience of sexual harassment.

***Behavioral Attitudes***

Hierarchical regression analysis results indicated that the control variables entered in model 1 as a block of variables did not significantly predict behavioral attitudes, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F$ (3, 195) = 1.86, $p > .05$. Among all demographic and background variables in model 1, years of education was the only significant negative predictor of the dependent variable, $\beta = -.16$, $t(195) = -2.25$, $p < .05$. Controlling for model 1, the additional predictors included in model 2 did not explain a significant proportion of variance in behavioral attitudes, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F$ (2, 193) = .17, $p$ > .05. Years of education remained the only significant negative predictor of the dependent variable, $\beta = -.17$, $t(193) = -2.27$, $p < .05$ Hence, H1 was not supported regarding behavioral attitudes. Controlling for all the variables in model 1 and model 2, the additional predictors included in model 3 did not explain a significant proportion of variance in the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F$ (2, 191) = 1.6, $p > 05$. Years of education, $\beta = -.17$, $t(191) = -2.31$, $p < .05$,

was the only individual significant predictor of behavioral attitudes among all the variables in model 3 (see Table 3). Therefore, H2 was also not supported regarding behavioral attitudes.

**Statistical Analysis and Findings of the Study: H3 and H4**

This study also tested the direct (H3) and indirect (H4: through intergroup anxiety) effects of intergroup contact quantity and quality on Saudi women journalists' general attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive& behavioral) toward Saudi men. The hypotheses 3 and 4 were tested using Model 4 from Hayes (2018) SPSS-based PROCESS models (with 5000 bootstrap iterations). Hayes PROCESS is a regression based computational tool designed as an add-on to SPSS to test mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling (Hayes, 2018). The descriptive information of each variable and zero-order correlations among the major variables were reported in (see Table 2).

Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 predicted that female Saudi journalists' intergroup contact quantity and quality with male colleagues had direct (H3) and indirect (H4: through intergroup anxiety) effects on their attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, or behavioral) toward Saudi men. Model 4 from Hayes (2018) SPSS-based PROCESS models (with 5000 bootstrap iterations) were utilized to test the two hypotheses. Demographic variables (i.e., age, years of education, sex of the supervisor), sexual harassment (yes or no), gender discrimination, received social support about work, and perceived government support of women were entered as covariates. In each model's estimation, either intergroup contact quantity or intergroup contact quality was entered as an *X* variable (i.e., predictor variable) with the other variable entered as a covariate. One of participants' attitudes (i.e., affective, cognitive, or behavioral) toward men in the workplace was entered each time as a *Y* (dependent) variable. Intergroup anxiety was entered as *M* (i.e., the mediator variable). The direct and indirect effects were interpreted as significant if the 95% bias-

corrected confidence interval for the parameter estimate did not contain zero (Hayes, 2018). The results of the direct and indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of contact on attitudes are reported in Table 4.

***Affective Attitudes***

Results indicated that both perceived contact quantity and quality had significant indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects on affective attitudes (contact quantity: $b = .05$, $SE = .03$, $p < .05$; contact quality: $b = .10$, $SE = .03$, $p < .01$, respectively). See Figure 1 and Table 4 for these results. Results also indicated that gender discrimination, sexual harassment, perceived social support about gender-related work problems, and perceived government support of women were significant predictors of Saudi female journalists' affective attitudes.

***Cognitive Attitudes***

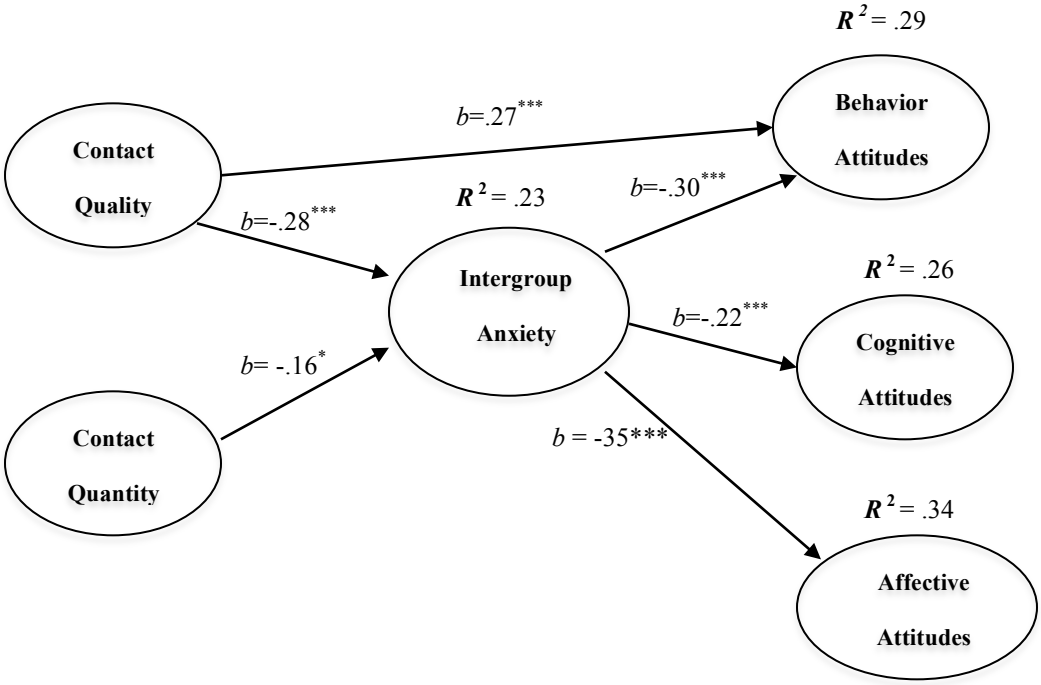
Results revealed that both perceived contact quantity and quality have significant indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects on cognitive attitudes (contact quantity: $b = .03$, SE = .02; $p < .05$; contact quality: $b = .06$, SE = .03, $p < .05$, respectively). See Figure 1 and Table 4 for these results. Moreover, results also showed that gender discrimination, sexual harassment, received social support about gender-related work problems and perceived government support of women were significant predictors of Saudi female journalists' cognitive attitudes.

***Behavioral Attitudes***

Results indicated significant indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of Saudi female journalists' perceived contact quantity and quality on their behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men (contact quantity: $b = .05$, $SE = .02$, < .05; contact quality: $b = .08$, $SE = .04$, $p < .05$). See Figure 1 and Table 4 for these results. Model 4 also revealed significant direct effects of quality of contact on female Saudi journalists' behavioral attitudes ($b = .27$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$). See Figure

1 and Table 5 for these results. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported, while Hypothesis 4 was completely supported.

Figure 1: *Direct and Indirect Effects of Contact Quantity and Quality through Intergroup Anxiety on Intergroup Attitudes*




Note. *$p$ < .05; **$p$ < .01; *** $p$ < .001; $N$ = 207. $b$ refers to the unstandardized regression coefficient. Only significant paths are reported

# Chapter Five: Discussion

## Summary of the Findings

The overarching goals of the current study were to examine Saudi female journalists' perspectives of the effects of work-related problems and social and governmental support on their work-related outcomes and attitudes towards men in Saudi Arabia. In addition, this study also tested the direct and indirect (through intergroup anxiety) effects of intergroup contact on Saudi female journalists' attitudes toward Saudi men. The present study tested four major research hypotheses:

Regarding H1, findings revealed perceived gender discrimination and Saudi women's experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace were significant positive predictors of job stress and intention to quit, but negative predictors of affective and cognitive attitudes towards men. Perceived gender discrimination and sexual harassment did not predict women Saudi journalists' job satisfaction nor their behavioral attitudes toward Saudi men in general; therefore, H1 was partially supported.

Regarding H2, findings indicated received social support regarding work and perceived government support of women were significant positive predictors of affective attitudes toward Saudi men in general. These findings also suggested perceived government support of women was a positive predictor of job satisfaction and cognitive attitudes toward Saudi men in general. Hence, H2 was also partially supported.

Regarding H3, findings in this study indicated intergroup contact quality with male coworkers had a statistically significant positive direct effect on Saudi female journalists' behavioral attitudes toward men.

Regarding H4, findings in the current study also demonstrated intergroup anxiety was a

statistically significant mediator between contact (both quantity and quality) and attitudes. In other words, contact quantity and contact quality with male co-workers had significant indirect effects on Saudi female journalist' attitudes toward men through intergroup anxiety.

Overall findings in the current study indicated four major themes related to (1) gender-related work problems as predictors of women's work related outcomes and attitudes toward men; (2) government support as a positive predictor of job satisfaction, and affective and cognitive attitudes toward men; (3) the relationship between social support and affective attitudes toward men; and (4) intergroup contact, intergroup anxiety, and attitudes toward men.

**Gender-Related Work Problems, Work Related outcomes, and Attitudes toward Men**

Findings in this study have demonstrated that perceived gender discrimination and experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace had harmful effects on women's work-related outcomes and the affective and cognitive attitudes towards men in general. In other words, Saudi women journalists who perceived higher levels of gender-based discrimination at the workplace or revealed that they were victims of sexual harassment tended to report higher levels of job stress, higher intentions to quit their job, and more negative emotions and thoughts toward men in Saudi Arabia overall. Those findings were consistent with prior literature that suggested gender discrimination and sexual harassment had similar negative global impacts on women at work and attitudes toward men overall. (Alshutwi, 2016; Clair et al., 2019; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Keyton et al., 2018; Mcguire et al., 2006). Saudi women journalists in the current study reported an average lower level of job stress ($M = 2.56$) and did not have strong intention to leave their recent job ($M = 2.65$). Cultural and social factors have limited Saudi women's participation in mix-gender workplaces for a long time. Participants in the current study were aware of the recent government's supportive policies of women (i.e., $M = 3.58$) or may be hyper-

conscious and feel fortunate to have the opportunity to work compared with Saudi women decades ago. It is possible these findings may have been confounded if many of the women in this sample chose to keep silent about gender discrimination and sexual harassment, which would be in line with previous research (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2009).

The negative consequences of reporting gender discrimination or sexual harassment could include fear of being fired, physically attacked, or forced by families to resign (Hersch, 2015). Therefore, quitting work and searching for new jobs are unlikely to resolve women's employment problems, especially when women believe work opportunities are limited. In addition, the situation of Saudi women in various mixed-gender work environments are likely similar regardless of the industry due to the patriarchal and hyper-masculine norms of the Saudi workforce (Abalkhail, 2017).

On the other hand, although the mean score perceived gender discrimination ($M = 2.46$) was significantly lower than the mid-point of the scale (i.e., 3) and it was a significant negative predictor of the participants' affective and cognitive attitudes toward men. Women's negative feelings and perceptions of Saudi men, to a large extent, are associated with gender related work problems as women in general and Saudi women journalists in particular remain as a minority group in the mixed-gender work organizations, where men hold higher careers positions and have strong power over women (Hersch, 2015). Therefore, even with relatively lower levels of gender-related problems reported in the current study, women who suffered from gender discrimination and sexual harassment tended to have higher levels of job stress and are less likely to hold positive attitudes toward men.

**Government Support, Job Satisfaction, and Attitudes toward Men**

One of the important findings in this study is that perceived government support of women in the workplace ($M = 3.58$) was a positive predictor of women's job satisfaction ($M = 3.98$), and affective and cognitive attitudes toward men. Saudi female journalists generally were satisfied with their job and did not have highly negative feelings and perceptions of men in general, which could be attributed to government laws and policies supportive of women. This finding is in line with prior literature in that woman who had higher positive expectations of the work organizations' laws and policies as being supportive and protective of women in the workplace were more satisfied (Cranny et al., 1992). Furthermore, women's positive perceptions of government support enhanced their positive feelings and perceptions of men in general (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Therefore, these findings indicate some initial positive forays of Saudi government's policies to empower Saudi women with full rights in the workforce. Specifically, Saudi government supports women in the leadership positions in various work organizations and has issued a strict law against sexual harassment in workplace (Khalid, 2018). With all confidence, the Saudi government will continue to apply domestic initiatives to empower Saudi women and to increase their amount and quality of participations in the Saudi labor market (Alshuwaikhat & Mohammed, 2017; Al-Sati, 2017).

**Social Support and Affective Attitudes**

This study found that perceptions of received social support had moderate positive effects on the female journalists' affective attitudes toward men. In the other words, received social support from various sources (e.g., family members, friends, and colleagues in the workplace) were positively associated with women's positive affective attitudes toward men. However, this finding was weaker than expected. Prior literature indicated strong influences of social support

on work-related outcomes and attitudes (Uchino, 2006; Simich et al., 2004). The mean score of received social support was low ($M = 2.65$) on a five-point Likert scale, which suggested that Saudi women journalists did not receive sufficient support when experiencing work-related problems.

Unlike what was predicted in the second hypothesis, Saudi women journalists may consider people around them as sources of troubles, problems, or threats instead of support. Due to traditional cultural and social factors, many families in Saudi are likely to continue discouraging women from working with men in the mixed-gender workplaces or blame women for problems they suffer from their workplaces (Naseem & Dhruva, 2017; Al-Sati, 2017). Hence, Saudi women may not actively seek social support when they encounter gender-related work problems. Other studies revealed that, most perpetrators of gender discrimination and sexual harassment were male co-workers or supervisors, therefore, women workers may not seek support from male coworkers or supervisors who may potentially further harm or threaten women instead of being supportive (Abalkhail, 2017).

In the Saudi workforce, prior studies have shown social and government supports of women are positive influences on workplace outcomes (Rajkhan, 2014). Support towards working women, which are obtained from family members, work colleagues, and/or government regulations contribute to well-being and positive relational attitudes among employees in the workplaces (Labianca & Brass, 2006; Winnubst & Schabracq, 1996). Future research should continue to examine the influence of social support on work-related outcomes and women's wellbeing in the workplace.

**Intergroup Contact, Intergroup Anxiety, and Women Attitudes**

The current study had also notable contributions to the prior intergroup contact literature by testing the direct (H3) and indirect (H4: through intergroup anxiety) associations between intergroup contact of Saudi women, as a lower status group, with male coworkers and their attitudes toward men in general. As a lower status group in Saudi Arabia, women employees are still considered subordinate to men (Al-Asfour et al. 2017). An important contribution of this study is that although some of Allport's (1954) conditions (e.g., equal status) between women and men are missing in the Saudi workplaces, contact with male coworkers was positively associated with improved attitudes toward men either directly or indirectly. In a broad picture, the findings of the current study supported Pettigrew and Tropp's (2006) meta-analysis in that intergroup contact can have positive effects on ingroup attitudes toward outgroups whether Allport's conditions are met or not. Altogether, findings of H3 and H4 have two major implications for Saudi women journalists as a minority group in the mixed-gender workplaces.

First**, f**indings from the current study, which are consistent with intergroup contact theory and previous studies in other intergroup contexts, have demonstrated that contact with specific members (male coworkers) the opposite gender group is one of the best methods to reduce prejudice and enhance positive attitudes towards the gender outgroup (Allport, 1954; Brown & Hewstone, 2005). In this study, intergroup contact quality was a statistically significant positive predictor of intergroup behavioral attitudes. In other words, positive communication experienced by Saudi women journalists with men in the workplace were significantly associated with more willingness to engage and interact with Saudi men in general. However, intergroup contact quality was not a significant direct predictor of affective (i.e. emotions/feelings) or cognitive attitudes (i.e. perceptions) and that intergroup contact quantity did not directly affect any of the

three dimensions of attitudes. It is possible that longstanding social and cultural factors which minimize Saudi women's experiences of communication with men as well as the deep history of bias and prejudicial attitudes towards women may play an important role regarding the effect of intergroup contact quantity on attitudes.

Second, the current study found intergroup contact quantity ($M$ = 3.44) and quality ($M$ = 3.45) were negatively associated with intergroup anxiety ($M$ = 2.30), which in turn predicted more favorable attitudes toward outgroup members (Pagotto et al., 2010; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Voci & Hewstone, 2003). Put simply, Saudi women journalists who had better or more intergroup contact with men in their workplace tended to have lower levels of intergroup anxiety, which subsequently led to more positive affective (i.e. feelings), cognitive (i.e. beliefs), and behavioral (i.e. willingness to communicate) attitudes toward Saudi men. Many previous studies have suggested intergroup anxiety is a focal mediator of the positive effects of intergroup contact on intergroup attitudes (Paolini et al., 2004; Shim et al., 2012; Stephan et al., 1999; Swart et al., 2011). This study further supports previous intergroup contact studies showing the importance of intergroup contact quantity and quality in reducing intergroup fear, negative stereotypes, and prejudice (Imamura, Zhang & Shim, 2012). In a broad picture, frequent and favorable contact that Saudi female journalists experienced with male coworkers in the workplace reduces their communication anxiety with men, which subsequently led to more positive attitudes towards Saudi men in general. Obviously, Saudi women's communication anxiety with men may be reduced as they become more familiar with and become more knowledgeable about how to communicate with men along with the increased contact quality and quality with male coworkers. Consequently, lower levels of intergroup anxiety can help

Saudi women to be more ready to engage in better communications and relations with men, which may lead to changes their perceptions of men overall (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008).

**Practical Implications**

The findings from the current study revealed several practical implications. First, the main findings of previous research indicated gender inequality and workplace sexual harassment remain active challenges for women working in Saudi Arabia. Altogether, gender inequality and workplace sexual harassment have negative effects on women' work environments, health, and contributions even though Saudi societal changes have been initiated. Findings in this study also confirmed that even though the number of women in the Saudi workforce has increased in the past decade and there have been ambitious initiatives to reduce the negative obstacles they face, Saudi female participation in the government and private workforce is still unstable. Gender inequality in mixed-gender workplaces are related to inconsistent opportunities to work, unsuitable jobs, unequal pay, incompatible tasks, and negative behaviors toward women. Gender discrimination persists despite the reality that women's educational achievements in some fields surpass men's. These findings are similar to previous research findings that revealed gender discrimination and sexual harassment have deep influential roots on women around the globe. The gender gap in the Saudi Arabian workplace has also been influenced by dominant cultural norms that allow men to unilaterally determine women's participation in the workforce with little attention to women's opinions or needs.

To diminish the influence of gender prejudices, Saudi women need to encourage themselves, people around them, and especially younger generations to learn about women's rights (i.e. work rights, civil rights), develop competency in recognizing and addressing gender discrimination, and fight to gain more women rights to work by using new government support.

Although, new women's empowerment polices are supportive, they need to further developed to understand how women can act independently and challenge gender inequality as well as attain social justice in their life, including work-related matters (Rajkhan, 2014). Decision makers in charge of Saudi economic regulatory policies, as well as executives in the private sector, should consider the negative phenomena experienced by women in the labor market. Issues such as job stress, job dissatisfaction, and the intent to leave the workplace are harmful not only for women's labor experiences but also women's struggles in the public sphere. Listening to working women, regarding policymaking and needed protections, will address women's worries about discrimination and increase their investment the workforce for generations to come. The acknowledgment and inclusion of women will help reduce discrimination and may promote equality in the workforce. Also, future research should addresses the positive sides of the culture in Saudi Arabia that respect and support women rights to work and more fully engage their community.

Second, along with the #MeToo movement, which has globally elevated the awareness of women discrimination and harassment in the work place, more and more women have made honest and clear statements about their own experiences of harassment. However, the majority of women in Saudi Arabia and other Arab nations chose to remain silent about the severity of their experiences of harassment (Al-Wazir, 2017). Women victims of harassment tend to believe that Arabic cultural norms could always find a way to blame the woman. Hence, talking about their actual experiences of sexual violence would cause further vilifying the victims with questions and other negative outcomes. However, the #MeToo movement was one of the important reasons for Saudi government to introduce many royal decrees (e.g., permit women to

drive and participate in mixed-gender workplaces) and initiate legislation and pass laws to criminalize sexual harassment (Al-Wazir, 2017).

Third, findings in this study showed that social and governmental support are promoting positive affective and cognitive attitudes of female journalists towards men in general. However, social and government support were not significant negative predictors of job stress and intention to quit. Although Saudi women believe government laws enhance their empowerment in the labor market, these laws have not yet been tested because they are new. The Saudi reform plan was only announced in 2016, and the application of this plan, particularly the aspects that address women's contributions in the workforce, needs time to produce noticeable results in social equity. Participants of this study revealed that Saudi laws and policies are expected to enhance women's equality in the workplace and reduce the harmful effects of negative male behaviors. However, the participants also stated they suffered from common types of gender discrimination in the workplace in Saudi Arabia due to the cultural factors used against women in the Saudi labor market.

On the other hand, findings in the current study indicated that social support received when participants encountered work-related problems was a positive predictor of affective attitudes toward men in general. In general, however, social support received did not significantly predict anything else measured in the current study (e.g., job satisfaction, job stress, intention to leave the current job, etc.). Saudi women still face institutional obstacles that prevent them from achieving equality in the workplace and society. Thus, future research should investigate why social support did not fully improve women's health, work, and attitudes toward societal issues in Saudi Arabia, particularly in mixed-gender workplaces. Future studies should examine specific types of social support (i.e. informational, emotional, appraisal, and instrument)

to explore which types enhance Saudi women's social and professional participation in society. If pursued, findings could enable organizations to address and remedy injustices faced by Saudi women.

Fourth, examination of the mean scores of the contact measures in the current study reveals that both intergroup contact quantity and quality share similar moderate values ($M$ = 3.44 for contact quantity, $M$ = 3.45 for contact quality). This pattern illustrates that as Saudi women journalists in mixed-gender workplaces hade relatively frequent and positive communication with men in general, which led to reduced anxiety ($M$ = 2.30) and improved attitudes. Moreover, quality of contact as pleasant and supportive communication between Saudi women journalists and their male co-workers encouraged Saudi women to be more willing to engage men in tasks and conversions, especially for those who felt empowered by the recent Saudi government policies and laws that aim to support Saudi women in mixed-gender workplaces. Government support may produce more effective work relations and build positive intergroup behaviors, such as collaborating with the outgroup, or working with various gendered colleagues, and/or starting a personal relationship. However, the means scores of the contact and attitudinal measures (i.e., affective, $M$ = 3.33; cognitive, $M$ = 3.27; and behavioral, $M$ = 3.42) are all above the mid-point (i.e., 3) but below 4 of the five-point Likert scale that indicates positive attitudes.

Fifth, interestingly, one of the controlling variables (i.e., participants' years of education received) had direct negative association with female journalists' behavioral attitudes. The longer the years of education Saudi women had received, the less likely they would want to engage in interactions with men. The majority of Saudi women journalists are well educated ($M$ =10.83, $SD$ = 6.34) with advanced degrees, including master, doctorate or professional degrees in addition to the college degrees. Gender segregation in schools could have adversely affected the

relationship between women and men in general; women who were more educated could be more sensitive to gender discrimination and sexual harassment and thus more educated women tended to have a lower level of willingness to communicate or work with men in general. Prior research indicated that highly educated women reported more work-related problems, especially sexual harassment (Fain & Anderton, 1987). However, findings in the current study indicated Saudi women journalists who reported sexual harassment did not showed they were better educated ($r$ (205) = -.048, $p$ > .05). Saudi women who are better educated might be more likely to avoid men in general as they are more aware of and better informed about the graveness and prevalence of gender discrimination and sexual harassment.

Therefore, overall, Saudi female journalists who participated in the current study only reported lukewarm or mixed attitudes toward men in general. In addition, although the statistical mean of anxiety is low, 24% of the female journalists reported that they experienced sexual harassment, thus indicating the ongoing problematic side of cross-sex communication in mixed-gender workplaces in Saudi Arabia. These ongoing gender-related work problems experienced by women in a male dominated culture, such as Saudi Arabia, could explain the moderate levels of intergroup contact with and attitudes toward men and deserve more scholarly attention in future intergroup contact studies. These findings provide insights to work organizations in terms of how to make intergroup communication with coworkers more frequent, and simultaneously valuable and supportive for women. Women who are well educated could play an important leadership role in helping to create a more equitable workplace, where more women can thrive in leadership roles in Saudi Arabia. Improving women's participation in the mixed-gender workplaces then is expected to be a strong sign of positive gender communication, which could lead to more positive attitudes toward men. Furthermore, having strong and applicable laws that

encourage members of various gender groups to respect other groups' identities, appreciate and support their involvement in team works may encourage women's trust of men, especially well educated women and ultimately improve their relationships with men. However, the supportive governmental changes in Saudi Arabia that allow women to gain more social rights are still in their initial stage and thus it takes more actual practices and longer time to evaluate their influences on gender -related problems in the workplace in general. For intergroup scholars, this study suggests more research is needed to investigate the complicated nature of intergroup relations between sex/gender groups in Saudi Arabian culture such as the role of social and government support and religious and cultural beliefs.

**Study Limitations and Future Research**

Although findings in this study are promising, some limitations should also be recognized. First, this study involved participants from Saudi women journalists in mixed-gender workplaces. Female journalists constitute a smaller sample than other occupational fields with higher female participation, such as health and education. Among 600 Saudi female journalists who attempted to participate in the current study initially, only about 200 women completed the survey. Many of them did not finish the survey questionnaires due to various reasons (e.g., the research topic and some questions were too sensitive to them or time constraint). Hence, future studies should consider further steps to increase participation, such as compensating the participants or hiring a woman research assist as a liaison between a male researcher and women participants to reduce anxiety and increase clarity about the mission of such investigations in benefiting women in general. Moreover, future research should also involve additional samples from different industries to enhance external validity of the findings.

Second, although there are some prior noteworthy studies that have addressed women's obstacles in the Saudi workplace, few studies have addressed women's issues reported in the media profession. Of these studies reporting on the media professions, many of these studies were conducted over a decade ago, which missed the opportunity to explore the effects of new social reforms and governmental plans that aim to enhance women's roles in society, the influence of social changes, and the support for women's participation in media workplaces. This study's timeliness contributes to our understanding of more recent social and economic changes in Saudi Arabia under Saudi Vision 2030, especially toward the roles of women in media industry. Moreover, this study has addressed important and sensitive cultural subjects, such as sexual harassment in the workplace. Moreover, future studies should also focus on contact and cross-sex friendship within Saudi work environments. Cross-sex communication and its influence on intergroup relationships can be assessed by including different explaining variables, which have been noted in previous research as mediators or moderators of intergroup contact and attitudes. For example, areas such as relational solidarity and friendship, gender salience, religious and cultural conservatism, work/family conflict, and social support, might lead to theoretically strengthened research outcomes.

Third, many of the previous studies conducted used small samples, such as in-depth interviews with a limited number of journalists from a single media organization. The current study tried to diversify research method and participation by reaching out to women journalists from many Saudi media workplaces and found that participants shared similar work problems across a variety of employers. Further research pertaining to Saudi women in various media fields is necessitated to gauge their experiences in society as well as work participation.

Fourth, data for our study reveal the sensitive nature of this subject matter and likely the

vulnerability of our sample, as 24% did not report their work status and 19% did not report the media industry they currently work for (i.e. traditional, digital, etc.). Some of the participants avoided to report those demographic data or answered other sensitive questions as they might nor feel safe in answering the sensitive questions. Those questions could be potentially threatening and harmful. Hence, future research on sensitive subjects should be more careful in questionnaire design.

Finally, given the controversial dynamics regarding gender in Saudi Arabia we were constrained in our data collection by exploring a gender binary between men and women. Future studies have the opportunity to explore a more fluid gender experience in relation to workplace discrimination and inequity. Our current study unfortunately reifies this gender binary by only looking at women employees and their perceptions of men. We believe future approaches to the study of gender and work in Middle Eastern countries can further nuance scholarly knowledge about gender and work by looking beyond dichotomous framing of gender.

**Conclusion**

Even in developed countries, gender discrimination and sexual harassment in the workplace remain prevalent, not only for women, but also for the institutions in which they work. Similarly, in a developing and patriarchal society like Saudi Arabia, women's participation in organizations and community is limited by many cultural and social factors. These factors such as the societal denial of women working with men or reduced financial rights have deprived women from thriving. Previous studies have demonstrated female victims of gender discrimination and sexual harassment showed more job stress and intention to leave, less job satisfaction, and negative attitudes toward men.

Saudi Arabia's transformation plans, which include boosting women's presence in the workforce and eliminating cultural barriers, have contributed to an increase in the number of women in positions previously reserved for men. Government initiatives has reinforced the social support provided to women by people in their social networks who believe in their abilities and rights, such as family members, friends or co-workers. Overall, government and social support will continue to be an important factor improving women's work environments as they are associated with positive work outcomes and attitudes (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Morelli et al., 2015).

The objectives of this study were to analyze Saudi female journalists' perceptions of gender discrimination, sexual harassment, and social and government support and their effects on job stress, intention to leave, job satisfaction and attitudes toward Saudi men in general. Furthermore, the current study also examined Saudi female journalists' perceptions of the direct and indirect through intergroup anxiety effects of intergroup contact on their attitudes toward Saudi men as well after they have the first chance to communicate directly with non-familial men in the workplace.

Overall, findings in the current study make important contributions to the literature. Many Saudi journalists reported they were victims of sexual harassment and workplace discrimination, which is detrimental to their potential work contributions. Importantly, workplace outcomes and attitudes of women towards Saudi men were negatively influenced by gender discrimination and sexual harassment more than they were positively influenced by social and governmental support. The current study added also significant findings to the intergroup communication literature in the context of sex/gender in an Middle Eastern culture that has received insufficient research attention in the past decades. Supporting the Contact Hypothesis and intergroup contact

theory, findings in the present study indicated that intergender contact quantity and quality played a major role in enhancing intergender relations either directly or indirectly through reduced intergroup anxiety. Moreover, supporting the prior extensive literature, findings from the current study found that intergroup anxiety was a significant mediator of the association between intergroup contact quantity and quality and all the three dimensions of intergroup attitudes. Findings from a marginalized group (i.e., women journalists) provided evidence that intergroup communication can positively improve intergroup relationships even when some of the Allport's (1954) optimal conditions are violated, indicating the importance of the intergroup processes. Future studies should focus more on improving Saudi women's participation in the Saudi workplace.

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# Appendix A

## IRB Approval

THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS
Research

Date: March 25, 2019

TO: Ahmed Muyidi, (a412m010@ku.edu)

FROM: Alyssa Haase, IRB Coordinator (785-864-7385, irb@ku.edu)

RE: **Approval of Initial Study**

The IRB reviewed the submission referenced below on 3/25/2019. The IRB approved the protocol, effective 3/25/2019.

| **IRB Action: APPROVED** | **Effective date: 3/25/2019** | **Expiration Date : 3/24/2023** |
|---|---|---|
| STUDY DETAILS | | |
| Investigator: | Ahmed Muyidi | |
| IRB ID: | STUDY00143803 | |
| Title of Study: | Saudi Journalists (Females) in the Workplace: Exploring the Influences of Social Support and intergroup Anxiety on the Relationship between Intergroup Contact, Gender Discrimination, and Sexual Harassment, and Work Related Outcomes | |
| Funding ID: | None | |
| REVIEW INFORMATION | | |
| Review Type: | Initial Study | |
| Review Date: | 3/25/2019 | |
| Documents Reviewed: | • Ahmed Muyidi , • consent form, • consent form- Arabic version, • Information Consent Statement.doc, • recruitment letter English and Arabic, • Survey Arabic version , • Survey English version | |
| Exemption Determination: | • (2)(ii) Tests, surveys, interviews, or observation (low risk) | |
| Additional Information: | | |

**KEY PROCEDURES AND GUIDELINES**. Consult our website for additional information.

1. **Approved Consent Form:** You must use the final, watermarked version of the consent form, available under the "Documents" tab, "Final" column, in eCompliance. Participants must be given a copy of the form.
2. **Continuing Review and Study Closure:** You are required to submit a Continuing Review before the project expiration date. Please close your study at completion.
3. **Modifications:** Modifications to the study may affect Exempt status and must be submitted for review and approval before implementing changes. For more information on the types of modifications that require IRB review and approval, visit our website.
4. **Add Study Team Member:** Complete a study team modification if you need to add investigators not named in original application. Note that new investigators must take the online tutorial prior to being approved to work on the project.
5. **Data Security**: University data security and handling requirements apply to your project.
6. **Submit a Report of New Information (RNI):** If a subject is injured in the course of the research procedure or there is a breach of participant information, an RNI must be submitted immediately. Potential non-compliance may also be reported through the RNI process.
7. **Consent Records:** When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity.
8. **Study Records** must be kept a minimum of three years after the completion of the research. Funding agencies may have retention requirements that exceed three years.

## APPENDIX B: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section One: Demographic and Background Measures

**Instructions: please complete the following information about yourself. There will be no right or wrong answers to any of the questions on this survey; we are simply interested in your view. Your responses are anonymous and only used for academic research purposes.**

**1- What is your age?**

**(_____) years**

**2- What is the highest degree or level of education you have completed?**

1. High school graduate.
2. Bachelor's degree.
3. Master's degree.
4. Professional degree.
5. Doctorate degree.
6. Other, please specify (  ).

**3- How many years of education have you received?**

(  ) years

**4- What is your current employment status?**

1- Employed for a government organization.

2- Employed for a private organization.

3- Work for both government and private organizations.

4- Retired.

5- Other, please specify (  ).

**5- What is your current work type?**

**1-** Full-Time worker.

**2-** Part-Time worker.

**3-** Other, please specify ( ).

**6- In which media industry do you currently work?**

1- Newspaper.

2- Magazine

3- Radio.

4- Television.

5- Online Journalism.

6- Public relation management

7- Other, please specify ( ).

**7- How long have you worked for your current organization?**

**(_____)years.**

**8- The boss of my current workplace is:**

1- Male.

2- Female.

**9- How many male friends do you have in your workplace? (_____).**

**10- How many female friends do you have in your workplace? (_____).**

## Section Two: Mjor Measurements

**Perceived Gender Discrimination Instrument**

**Instructions: Consider your personal experiences and knowledge about your workplace, please select a number from 1 to 5 (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

**Higher scores indicate more negative perceptions of gender discrimination by women in regard to their workplaces.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. At work, I sometimes feel that my sex is a limitation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My sex has a negative influence on my career advancement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. At work, many people have sex stereotypes and treat me as if they were true. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. At work, I feel that male colleagues exclude me from activities because of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. At work, I do not get enough recognition because of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. The people I work with sometimes make sexist statements and/or decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I feel that some of the policies and practices of my workplace are sexist. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I have been treated unfairly at work because of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Sexual Harassment Instrument.1**

**Instructions: please select the number from 1 to 5 (1 = never; 2 = once or twice; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; 5 = very often) to indicate how often your supervisors/bosses, co-workers, or your own employees did any of the followings to you since you started working as a journalist.**

**Higher numbers indicate that this behavior occurred more frequently.**

1. **Put you down or was condescending to you because of your sex.**

| | 1 Never | 2 Rarely | 3 Sometimes | 4 Often | 5 Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**2. Treated you differently because of your sex.**

| | 1 Never | 2 Rarely | 3 Sometimes | 4 Often | 5 Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**3. Made offensive sexist remarks.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**4. Attempted to draw you into discussion of sexual matters.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**5. Told offensive sexual stories or jokes.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**6. Made offensive gestures of a sexual nature.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**7. Made offensive remarks about appearance, body, or sexual activities.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**8. Displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**9. Repeated requests for dates, etc., despite being told no.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**10. Attempted to establish a romantic relationship?**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**11. Attempted to stroke, fondle, or kiss you.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**12. Touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable.**

| | 1 Never | 2 Rarely | 3 Sometimes | 4 Often | 5 Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**13. Bribed you to engage in sexual behavior by offering a reward.**

| | 1 Never | 2 Rarely | 3 Sometimes | 4 Often | 5 Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**14. Threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative.**

| | 1 Never | 2 Rarely | 3 Sometimes | 4 Often | 5 Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**15. Treated you badly for refusing to have sex.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**16. Implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative.**

| | 1<br>Never | 2<br>Rarely | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Very Often |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Your supervisors/bosses** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your coworkers** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **Your own employees** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**Sexual Harassment Instrument.2**

Have you experienced sexual harassment at work?

1 = No

1 = Yes

**Received Social Support Instrument**

**Instructions: The following sets of items are about support you may have received from your people networks when you had work-related problems. Based on each item, please select a number from 1-5 (1= not at all; 2= rarely; 3= sometimes; 4= often; 5= always) to indicate how much support you received in this way when you had problems in your workplace.**

**Higher scores indicate more received support.**

| **Statements** | **Not at all 1** | **Rarely 2** | **Sometimes 3** | **Often 4** | **Always 5** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Listened to your work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. Showed concern towards your work- related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. Gave you aid in dealing with your work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. Gave you tangible assistance to deal with your work-related stress | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 5. Gave you sound advice about problems encountered at work. | | | | | |
| 6. Gave you useful suggestions in order to get through difficult times at work. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 7. Gave you good advice about how to handle a work-related crisis. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 8. Were trustworthy in supporting you to solve your problems at work. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| **9.** Dealt respectfully with your thoughts and personality when you had work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 10. Showed you care and sympathy when you had work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Listened to your most private worries and fears about your work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 12. Positively/constructively encouraged you to improve your work. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 13. Helped you to gain more self-confidence at work when you had work related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 14. Made you feel safe when you were around them after learning about your work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 15. Stood with you when you had any work-related problems. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 16. Evaluated you in a way that was helpful in improving your job performance. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**Perceived Governmental Support Instrument**

**Instructions: Please select a number from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = not sure; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate your perceptions of Saudi governmental policies and laws of supporting women's rights in workplace.**

**Higher scores indicate participants' perceived Saudi government's policies and laws to be more supportive of women in the workplace.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Not Sure 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Saudi government has policies and laws that support recruiting women for the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. Saudi government has policies and laws that support proper training for women to build workplace skills. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. Saudi government has policies and laws that allow women to compete with men for higher positions in the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. Saudi government has policies and laws that help to reduce gender discrimination in the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 5. Saudi government has policies and laws that help to reduce sexual harassment in the workplace. | | | | | |
| 6. Saudi government has policies and laws that protect women's rights in the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 7. Saudi government has policies and laws that value women's contributions in the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 8. Saudi government has policies and laws that grant women and men equal rights in the workplace, such as equal income and work hours. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **9.** Saudi government has policies and laws that help to reduce social restrictions for women entering the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 10. Saudi government has policies and laws that enhance the women's general satisfaction in workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 11. Saudi government has policies and laws that allow consideration of any complaint from women in workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 12. Saudi government has policies and laws that encourage people to treat women in the workplace with respect. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 13. Saudi government has policies and laws that require women to have equal access to the best job opportunities in the workplace. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**Intergroup Contact Quantity Instrument**

**Instructions: Think of your frequency of contact with male journalists in your workplace, and answer the following questions by selecting a number from 1 to 5 (1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = usually; 5 = always) that best reflects your situations.**

**Higher scores indicate more frequent contact with men in general.**

| **Statements** | **Never**<br><br>**1** | **Rarely**<br><br>**2** | **Sometimes**<br><br>**3** | **Usually**<br><br>**4** | **Always**<br><br>**5** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. How often do you communicate with male journalists in your workplace? | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. How often do you work as group with male journalists in your workplace? | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. How often do you do things socially with male journalists such as eating out or exchanging family visits? | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. How often do you use social media applications such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Snapchat and WhatsApp to communicate with male journalists in your workplace? | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**Intergroup Contact Quality Instrument**

**Instructions: Think of your communication with male journalists in the workplace, and select the number from 1to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

**Higher scores indicate better quality of contact with men in general.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither agree nor disagree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My communication with male journalists is beneficial in the workplace. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My communication with male journalists is valuable in the workplace | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I enjoy my conversation with my male colleagues in the workplace | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My communication with my male colleagues has been satisfactory in the workplace | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Most of the time, I have friendly conversation with my male colleagues in the workplace. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. My communication with male journalists is pleasant in the workplace. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Intergroup Anxiety Instrument**

**Instructions: Select the number from 1- 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = not sure; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree toward your feelings when interacting with males in general.**

**High scores indicate higher level of intergroup anxiety.**

1. **I feel anxious when I come to contact with males in general.**

**Strongly Disagree** **Not Sure** **Strongly Agree**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

2. **I feel nervous when I come to contact with males in general.**

**Strongly Disagree** **Not Sure** **Strongly Agree**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

3. **I feel relaxed when I come to contact with males in general*.**

**Strongly Disagree** **Not Sure** **Strongly Agree**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

4. **I feel worried when I come to contact with males in general.**

**Strongly Disagree** **Not Sure** **Strongly Agree**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

5. **I feel threatened when I come to contact with males in general**

**Strongly Disagree** **Not Sure** **Strongly Agree**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

*Reverse coded.

**Job Stress Instrument**

**Instructions: The following statements are about job stress you have had in your workplace. Please select a number from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job stress.**

**Higher scores indicate higher job stress.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither agree nor disagree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I feel stressful all the time because of my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Very stressful things happen to me at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My job is extremely stressful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I feel stressed at work everyday. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My colleagues do many stressful things to me at workplace | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Less support towards work demands from my advisor and colleagues made me stressful at workplace | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Intentions to Leave Instrument**

**Instructions: The following statements measure your intentions to quit your current job. Please select a number from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements, which are about your intention to leave your job. Higher scores indicate higher intention to quit a job.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I often think about quitting my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I am actively searching for an alternative to my present job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. As soon as it is possible, I will leave my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I deserve a better job than what I have now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Job Satisfaction Instrument**

**Instructions: The following statements are about your job satisfaction. Please select a number from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree) to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements, which are about your satisfaction with your job.**

**Higher scores indicate more agreement with the statement.**

| Statements | Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither agree nor disagree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I find real enjoyment in my job. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 5. Overall, I feel satisfied with my job. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**General Attitudes toward Males Instrument**

**Affective Attitudes Instrument**

**Instructions: The following sets of bipolar adjectives describe your feeling towards males in Saudi Arabia in general. Please indicate the degree to which you feel Cold-Warm, Negative- Positive, etc, towards males in Saudi Arabia in general. For example, if you select a number between 1 and 2, that indicates you feel negative or unpleasant toward males in Saudi Arabia in general, selecting 3 means that you feel neutral, and selecting a number between 4 and 5 refers to that you feel positive or pleasant towards males in Saudi Arabia in general. Higher scores indicate more positive feelings toward Saudi men in your workplace or in general.**

**"Generally, I feel _____ towards males in Saudi Arabia in general."**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cold | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Warm |
| Negative | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Positive |
| Hostile | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Friendly |
| Unfavorable | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Favorable |
| Contempt | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Respect |
| Suspicious | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Trusting |
| Disgust | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Admiration |
| Unpleasant | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Pleasant |

**Cognitive Attitudes Instrument**

**Instructions: The following sets of bipolar adjectives describe your perceptions towards males in Saudi Arabia in general. Please mark the number, which indicates how you think of males in Saudi Arabia in general. For example, if you think the males in in Saudi Arabia in general are incompetent, choose 1 or 2. If you think that males in Saudi Arabia in general are competent, choose 4 or 5. Otherwise, choose 3.**

**Higher scores indicate more positive perceptions of Saudi male in your workplace or in general.**

**"Generally, males in Saudi Arabia are: ……"**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Incompetent | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Competent |
| Deceitful | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Truthful |
| Selfish | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Altruistic |
| Intolerant | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Tolerant |
| Not Good-natured | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Good-natured |
| Insincere | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Sincere |
| Not confident | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Confident |
| Dependent | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Independent |
| Not competitive | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Competitive |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stupid | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Intelligent |
| Aggressive | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Not Aggressive |
| Conservative | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Not Conservative |
| Not Hospitable | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Hospitable |
| Not Patriotic | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Patriotic |
| Hot-headed | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | Cool-headed |

**Behavioral Attitudes Instrument**

**Instructions: The following Statements describe your willingness to engage/interact with nonfamily men in Saudi Arabia in general. Select number from 1 to 5 (1 = extremely unwilling; 2 = unwilling; 3 = not sure; 4 = willing; 5 = extremely willing) to indicate the degree to which you are willing to engage/interact with nonfamily men in Saudi Arabia in general.**

**Higher scores indicate more willing to engage/interact with males in Saudi Arabia in general.**

**"Generally, in Saudi Arabia, given the opportunity, I am willing to:……"**

| **Statements** | **Extremely unwilling 1** | **Unwilling 2** | **Not Sure 3** | **Willing 4** | **Extremely Willing 5** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Initiate conversations with men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. Maintain frequent interactions with men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. Work with men on the same team. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. Accept men to be my boss at work. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 5. Attend public events with men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 6. Accept gifts from men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 7. Accept physical assistances from men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8. Accept emotional assistances from men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 9. Accept work related comments from men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 10. Accept a personal related comments from men | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 11. Accept work related information from men. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 12. Request work related comments from men | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 13. Accept men as close friends. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

Table 1
*Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations Among the major Variables for Hypotheses 1 and 2.*

| Variables | *M* | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age | 34.8 | 9.26 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Years of Education | 10.8 | 6.34 | .25** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Sex of supervisor (0 = M or 1=F) | n/a | n/a | -.06 | -.05 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Gender Discrimination | 2.46 | .97 | .18** | -.08 | .09 | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Sexual Harassment (0 = no, 1 = yes) | n/a | n/a | -.04 | -.05 | -.01 | .17* | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Social Support | 2.65 | .80 | -.01 | .07 | .06 | -.22** | .07 | | | | | | | |
| 7. Government Support | 3.58 | 1.06 | -.05 | .04 | .02 | -.32** | -.07 | .15* | | | | | | |
| 8. Job Stress | 2.56 | .98 | .10 | .03 | .06 | .54** | .06 | -.12 | -.19** | | | | | |
| 9. Intention to Leave | 2.65 | 1.14 | .02 | -.09 | -.05 | .49** | .02 | -.11 | -.14* | .48** | | | | |
| 10. Job Satisfaction | 3.98 | .96 | -.06 | -.02 | -.09 | -.22** | .02 | .15* | .28** | -.21** | -.27** | | | |
| 11. Affective Attitudes | 3.33 | .87 | -.05 | -.04 | -.01 | -.35** | -.19** | .24** | .27** | -.34** | -.21** | .25** | | |
| 12. Cognitive Attitudes | 3.28 | .84 | -.09 | -.03 | .04 | -.50** | -.26** | .24** | .34** | -.36** | -.29** | .23** | .64** | |
| 13. Behavior Attitudes | 3.42 | .74 | .01 | -.14 | -.01 | .00 | -.06 | .12 | -.01 | .05 | -.04 | .15* | .45** | .22** |

Note. **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$.

Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations Among the Variables for Hypotheses 3 and 4.*

| Variables | *M* | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age | 34.8 | 9.26 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Years of Education | 10.8 | 6.34 | .25** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Sex of supervisor (0 = M or1=F) | n/a | n/a | -.06 | -.05 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Gender Discrimination | 2.46 | .97 | .18** | .08 | .09 | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Sexual Harassment (0 = no, 1 = yes) | n/a | n/a | -.04 | -.05 | -.01 | .17* | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Social Support | 2.65 | .80 | -.01 | .07 | .06 | -.22** | .07 | | | | | | | |
| 7. Government Support | 3.58 | 1.06 | -.05 | .04 | .02 | -.32** | -.07 | .15* | | | | | | |
| 8. Contact Quantity | 3.44 | .95 | .04 | .00 | -.06 | -.13 | -.01 | .15* | .16* | | | | | |
| 9. Contact Quality | 3.45 | .86 | -.01 | -.07 | -.03 | -.09 | -.06 | .21** | .17* | .57** | | | | |
| 10. Intergroup Anxiety | 2.30 | .78 | -.11 | .06 | .01 | .09 | .09 | .02 | -.07 | -.36** | -.40** | | | |
| 11. Affective Attitudes | 3.33 | .87 | -.05 | -.04 | .01 | -.35** | -.19** | .24** | .27** | .27** | .33** | -.40** | | |
| 12. Cognitive Attitudes | 3.27 | .84 | -.09 | -.03 | .04 | -.50** | -.26** | .24** | .33** | .11 | .14** | -.24* | .64** | |
| 13. Behavior Attitudes | 3.42 | .74 | .01 | -.14* | -.01 | .00 | -.06 | .12 | -.01 | .26** | .43** | -.42** | .45** | .22** |

Note. **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$.

Table 3
*Relationships Between Gender Discrimination, Social Support, and Government Support and Female Saudi Journalists' Workplace Outcomes for the Total Sample (N = 199)*

| | *Job Stress*[a] | | | *Intention to Leave*[b] | | | *Job Satisfaction*[c] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ |
| Model 1 | .01 | | | .02 | | | .02 | | |
| Age | | .09 | .09 | | .04 | .04 | | -.09 | -.09 |
| Years of Education | | -.02 | -.02 | | -.11 | -.11 | | .02 | .02 |
| Sex of supervisor | | .05 | .05 | | -.07 | -.07 | | -.09 | -.09 |
| Model 2 | .32*** | | | .26 | | | .05* | | |
| Age | | -.03 | -.03 | | -.07 | -.07 | | -.05 | -.05 |
| Years of Education | | .07 | .06 | | -.03 | -.03 | | -.01 | -.01 |
| Sex of supervisor | | .03 | .03 | | -.09 | -.09 | | -.09 | -.09 |
| Gender Discrimination | | .43*** | .36 | | .43*** | .36 | | -.13 | -.11 |
| Sexual Harassment | | .23*** | .20 | | .15* | .13 | | -.13 | -.11 |
| Model 3 | 00 | | | .00 | | | .06*** | | |
| Age | | -.03 | -.03 | | -.07 | -.07 | | -.06 | -.06 |
| Years of Education | | .07 | .06 | | -.04 | -.03 | | -.02 | -.02 |
| Sex of supervisor | | .03 | .03 | | -.09 | -.09 | | -.10 | -.10 |
| Gender Discrimination | | .42*** | .34 | | .44*** | .35 | | -.04 | -.03 |
| Sexual Harassment | | .23*** | .20 | | .15* | .13 | | -.11 | -.09 |
| Social Support | | -.01 | -.01 | | .02 | .02 | | .12 | .11 |
| Government Support | | -.01 | -.01 | | .03 | .03 | | .23** | .22 |

[a] *Overall $R^2$ = .33, F(7, 191) = 13.5, p > .001.*
[b] *Overall $R^2$ = .33, F(7, 191) = 10.2, p < .001.*
[c] *Overall $R^2$ = .19, F(7, 191) = 4.02, p < .001.*
**p < .05; **p < .01; *** p < .001*

Table 4

*Relationships Between Gender Discrimination, Social Support, and Government Support and Female Saudi Journalists' Attitudes toward Saudi Men for Total the Sample (N = 199)*

| | *Affective Attitudes*[d] | | | *Cognitive Attitudes*[e] | | | *Behavior Attitudes*[f] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ | $R^2$ change | $\beta$ | $sr^2$ |
| Model 1 | .0 | | | .01 | | | .03 | | |
| Age | | -.00 | -.00 | | -.06 | -.06 | | .07 | .07 |
| Years of Education | | -.00 | -.00 | | -.02 | -.02 | | -.16* | -.16 |
| Sex of supervisor | | -.00 | -.00 | | .03 | .03 | | -.05 | -.05 |
| Model 2 | .15*** | | | .28*** | | | .00 | | |
| Age | | .08 | .08 | | .06 | .05 | | .07 | .07 |
| Years of Education | | -.07 | -.06 | | -.10 | -.10 | | -.17* | -.16 |
| Sex of supervisor | | .00 | .00 | | .06 | .05 | | -.05 | -.05 |
| Gender Discrimination | | -.28** | -.24 | | -.46*** | -.38 | | .01 | .00 |
| Sexual Harassment | | -.16* | -.14 | | -.15* | -.13 | | -.05 | -.04 |
| Model 3 | .05** | | | .04 | | | .02 | | |
| Age | | .07 | .07 | | .05 | .04 | | .07 | .07 |
| Years of Education | | -.07 | -.07 | | -.10 | -.10 | | -.17* | -.16 |
| Sex of supervisor | | -.01 | -.01 | | .04 | .04 | | -.06 | -.06 |
| Gender Discrimination | | -.20* | -.16 | | -.38*** | -.31 | | .03 | .02 |
| Sexual Harassment | | -.15* | -.13 | | -.13* | -.11 | | -.05 | -.04 |
| Social Support | | .17* | .17 | | .11 | .11 | | .13 | .13 |
| Government Support | | .14* | .13 | | .17** | .16 | | -.03 | -.03 |

[d] *Overall $R^2$ = .19, F(7, 191) = 6.54, p < 001.*

[e] *Overall $R^2$ = .33, F(7, 191) = 13.31, p < 001.*

[f] *Overall $R^2$ = .05, F(7, 191) = 1.31, p > 05.*

**p < .05; **p < .01; *** p < .001*

Table 5

*Direct, Indirect (through Intergroup Anxiety), and Total Effects Results for Indirect Effects of Contact Quantity and Contact Quality on Affective, Cognitive, and Behavioral Attitudes.*

| *X* Variables | Direct Effect on *Y* | | | | Relative Indirect Effect through *M on Y* | | | | Total Effect | | | | *Y* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Effect | 95%CI | *SE* | *p* | Effect | 95%CI | *SE* | *p* | Effect | 95%CI | *SE* | *p* | |
| Contact Quantity | .03 | -.101; .160 | .07 | .66 | .05 | .010; .108 | .03 | .05 | .84 | -.051; .219 | .07 | .22 | **Affective Attitudes** |
| Contact Quality | .10 | -.052; .248 | .08 | .20 | .10 | .034; .171 | .03 | .01 | .19 | .042; .347 | .08 | .01 | |
| Contact Quantity | -.04 | -.166; .078 | .06 | .48 | .03 | .005; .072 | .02 | .05 | -.01 | -.132; .112 | .06 | .87 | **Cognitive Attitudes** |
| Contact Quality | -.02 | -.163; .118 | .07 | .75 | .06 | .013; .124 | .03 | .05 | .04 | -.100; .176 | .07 | .59 | |
| Contact Quantity | -.02 | -.139; .090 | .06 | .67 | .05 | .009; .090 | .02 | .05 | .02 | -.096; .141 | .06 | .71 | **Behavioral Attitudes** |
| Contact Quality | .27 | .137; .402 | .07 | .00 | .08 | .023; .169 | .04 | .05 | .35 | .218; .487 | .08 | .00 | |